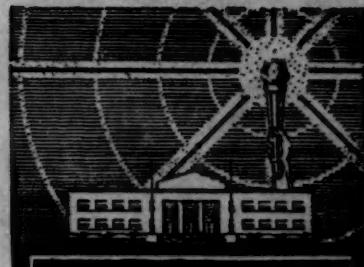


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VOLUME XLVIII, NUMBER 6

OCTOBER, 1957

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OCTOBER, 1957

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As the Editor Sees It

The subject of conservation is usually touched upon to greater or lesser degree in social studies courses, with emphasis on such phases as forestry, soil banks, flood control, and so forth. But there is another kind of less tangible conservation which we think deserves more attention than it gets, and that is the preservation of scenic beauty.

The Federal Government has committed itself to a tremendous program of new highway construction. Taken in conjunction with the great turnpikes and express roads recently built in the eastern part of the country, this program will make long-distance motoring more attractive and easier than ever before. That is, it will do so if the motorist is permitted to see the countryside. There is grave danger that instead he will be compelled to read billboards from coast to coast. It is an axiom of the billboard industry that any curve or view attractive enough to draw the traveller's eye is *ipso facto* the best place to erect a large sign. As a result, many of our chief highways are eyesores rather than routes of potential beauty. One has only, for example, to drive from New York to Albany or Philadelphia, or from Baltimore to Washington and on south, to appreciate the extent to which the billboard business has been allowed to deprive the citizen of his scenic heritage. Such exceptions as the New Jersey Turnpike, though much of it traverses non-scenic country, show how much pleasanter motoring can be when the mind and eye are not constantly assaulted by advertisements.

We recently had the pleasure of driving 2500 miles through England and Scotland. Their scenic beauties are famous and justly so; but they are only more concentrated, not greater than ours. What makes the English roads seem so much more attractive is their complete freedom from extraneous advertising. Signboards simply do not exist in the

open country. There may be occasional small signs at the near approach to a hotel or other roadside business, but even these are exceptions. One may be looking for a place to lunch and be past a good inn before he realizes it. In America the roadside would have been plastered with signs advertising the inn for fifty miles in every direction, *ad nauseam*. Never in the British countryside is the traveller's right to enjoyment intruded upon by great hoardings about cigarettes, beer or automobiles.

We do not know whether this condition is due to legislation, lack of British enterprise, or just good sense and good taste. But when we read that a Senate Committee has just rejected a proposal to bar billboards from the new highways to be constructed across America, we feel that here is an area where some conservation work can be done that would be just as valuable as that to save timber or soil. We know that advertising is a vital factor in the free enterprise economy; but we believe too that a citizen should always be able to turn a salesman away. He can twist that little knob on his radio or TV, ignore the advertising pages of his paper or magazine, throw the junk mail in the circular file, and take a nap on the bus. But what defense does he have while motoring through the country? He has no freedom of choice, but must see what is before him on the roads he has paid for. And if he is presented with admonitions to buy motor oil, mattresses or bathing suits, instead of with green fields, hills and hedges he has no recourse.

Freedom is like quicksilver; it is hard to hold or to define. The freedom of the individual to close his mind to the intrusion of other people who want his money ought to be one of the basic rights. We suggest that it is in danger of being lost on our highways, and that the loss would not be a small one.

Egypt: Reform at Home Or Adventure Abroad?

CAPTAIN RAYMOND R. FLUGEL

United States Air Force, Air University

Future historians may well ponder what appears to be a fundamental paradox underlying the conflict between Egypt, self-styled leader of the Arab world, and Israel over the problem of the political division of Palestine. Both Egypt and Israel have ardently espoused the cause of social and economic reform aimed at bettering the conditions of life for their people. Yet both have curtailed or put off internal improvement projects in order to augment their military forces and war material for the ostensible purpose of insuring the "security" of each country against the other. This situation obtains because the Palestine problem remains the focal point in the policy of Egypt and hence in that of Israel. The course and development of this problem, together with an over-all evaluation of Palestine, were treated in previous articles of this journal.¹ The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief geographical, historical, and political evaluation of Egypt in an attempt to elucidate some of the basic factors and domestic problems underlying Egyptian policy and throw into relief the basic question confronting Egyptian policymakers: Shall sorely needed economic and social reforms at home be jeopardized or postponed for the sake of the dubious glories of nationalism attaching to foreign adventures? Or must the Egyptian people, like the nations of Western Europe, learn this lesson not from history but from the greatest teacher of all—experience?

Basic Factors of Power and Some Socio-Economic Problems: The Land

Larger than both France and the West German Federal Republic, modern Egypt occupies an area of 363,000 square miles in the northeastern sector of the African continent. Because most of the country receives

less than four inches of rainfall per year, most of this expanse consists of poor steppe land and desert. (Twenty inches are generally required to raise crops such as wheat.) Were it not for the Nile river which winds for nearly 1,000 miles through Egypt, the country would be virtually a wasteland, fit only for nomadic grazing and oasis-type agriculture.

Egypt, the cradle of civilization, is truly the "gift of the Nile," as the historian Herodotus observed in ancient times. Its annual overflow provides life-giving water for irrigation and rich alluvial silt deposits for the renewal of the valley and delta soil. Thus, except for oases, the only part of Egypt that is cultivated regularly is the relatively small portion presently irrigated from the Nile—approximately six million acres representing 2.4 per cent of the total land area. Though the basic features of the landscape have remained remarkably unchanged over the course of many centuries, the building of modern dams has appreciably decreased the annual fluctuations of flow.

Because of the well regulated water supply, the long growing season, the fertility of the soil, and the increasing use of artificial fertilizers, multiple cropping is possible; two and even three crops per year can be grown on the same soil. Yields are fairly good. Cotton, of the finest long-staple variety, is the chief cash crop and accounts for about 80 per cent of Egyptian exports, though it occupies only 20 per cent to 30 per cent of the total cultivated area. At least until recently, it has been possible to grow it economically only on the larger estates. By far the greater part of the land is devoted to grain crops—corn, wheat, barley, rice, and grain sorghum, though sugar cane and fruit are also impor-

tant. Yet the foodstuffs raised are rarely sufficient for minimum subsistence, though rice is exported in small quantities. For example, a large amount of Canadian wheat was imported in late 1956.

The People: Over 96 per cent of Egypt's 23 million people live in the narrow valley and broad delta of the Nile river, giving the country one of the highest population densities in the world—1,600 people per square mile of arable land. Egypt's two great cities, Cairo with 2.5 million people and Alexandria with one million, are the largest in the Middle East.

Population has increased rapidly since 1800 when an estimated 2.5 millions occupied the present area. Both birth and death rates are among the highest in the world. According to United Nations statistics, there are 45 live births per 1,000 population, compared with 24 per 1,000 in India, another country in a similar situation. Much lower birthrates now prevail in the industrialized Western countries. Comparable death rates per 1,000 population are 18 for Egypt and 13 for India. The infant mortality rate is higher than even India's—127 per 1,000 live-born children die in their first year.

Three-quarters of the population is estimated to be illiterate and affected by one or more major debilitating diseases. Malaria scourges the countryside, and pellagra afflicts many town dwellers whose diet is of necessity restricted largely to the common staple, corn. Parasitic diseases and trachoma, which leads to blindness, are also common in Egypt, as in the rest of the Arab world. Disease spreads rapidly among the squalor of the hovels of the peasantry and the dried mud houses common even in cities like Cairo.

*Landholding System:*² As is characteristic of most underdeveloped subsistence-type economies, over 70 per cent of the population is directly dependent on the soil for a living. The inequitable pattern of land ownership accentuated the already acute pressure of population on the arable land, and was a contributing factor in the Revolution of 1952. As late as 1950, 72 per cent of individual land

holdings consisted of less than one acre, while another 22 per cent comprised one to five acres. Together these two categories represented one-third of the total agricultural land. At the other extreme there were 12,000 holdings of over 50 acres representing another third of the cultivated land. According to United Nations data, there was an average of half an acre of cultivated land per capita in 1907, and only half this amount in 1952. This occurred despite the construction of large irrigation works by British engineers which extended the area of arable land.

The constantly increasing pressure of population on the land has caused abnormal increases in land values. Native capital has traditionally been invested in land. Rents increased and large estates were built up, often administered by profiteering agents acting for absentee landlords. Another serious result of short-term leases and high rents was undue exploitation and exhaustion of the soil. Meanwhile, the Moslem law of inheritance led to the fragmentation of peasant holdings. Thus by 1950 5.87 per cent of agricultural landholders owned two-thirds of the nation's 6,006,000 feddans of cultivated land (one feddan equals 1.038 acres). Nearly two million fellahs or peasants owned less than an acre each, while another million and a half owned no land at all.

Mineral Resources and Industry: Egypt produces about two-thirds of her oil requirements from her petroleum deposits around the Gulf of Suez. Concessions for geological exploration for petroleum in the Western Desert have been granted to two American firms, and a similar concession in the Eastern Desert to a West German firm. Iron deposits near Aswan are being worked on a small scale. Coal, an essential fuel in the production of steel, is lacking. Despite the almost prohibitive cost of hauling coking coal to Aswan, a steel industry was established there in 1954 using native iron ore and locally-generated hydro-electric power. Other projects are under way to generate sufficient hydro-electric power at Aswan to overcome in part

chronic shortages of power and fertilizers. In addition to the above, Egypt has commercially significant deposits of phosphates, low-grade manganese ores, sodium salts, gold, and building stone.

Egyptian light industry includes textile, cement, and food-processing mills. About 600,000 persons are employed in factories. Native capital hesitates to invest in industrial enterprises, and foreign capital—essential to Egypt's economic development—feared the political instability and growing anti-capitalist tenor of the Nasser regime. A more serious and immediate drawback is the paucity of the *fellah's* purchasing power, both at home and in other Arab lands. Until farm income is materially increased, no substantial growth of industry is possible.

Transportation and Communications: The only extensive rail and highway net is located in the Nile delta. Elsewhere highways are infrequent and poor. The main rail line connects Alexandria with Cairo and Aswan. The Nile river and canals are utilized for cheap transport. The railroad system, as well as radio, telephone, and telegraph facilities, are state-owned. The only commercial airline, MISRAIR, also owned and subsidized by the state, provides limited domestic and Middle Eastern route service. Cairo, however, is an important international air center for almost all trans-Eurasian routes. Alexandria and Port Said are the chief shipping centers; the former also houses important naval base installations. Very little Egyptian traffic passes through the strategically located Suez Canal which normally handles about twice the tonnage going through the Panama Canal. The ratio of northbound to southbound traffic is seven to one, reflecting the heavy oil and raw material shipments to Europe.

Location: Egypt's location has made it an historic landbridge between Asia and Africa. From the earliest times men have travelled the strategic land route between the Nile Valley and the Fertile Crescent of the Levant. The fertility and wealth of this cradle of civilization have attracted marauders and invaders—as well as merchants and traders—

throughout history. As a consequence Egypt has been under alien rule or control during most of its history. This experience has in turn created a strong and pervasive xenophobia among its people.

Socio-Political Factors: In this, the most heavily populated of the Arab countries, nine-tenths of the 23 million people are Moslems, mostly of the Sunni rite. About nine per cent are Christians, mainly Coptic and Greek Orthodox. The small but commercially important Jewish population of 70,000 is being uprooted and ejected from Egypt by state edict, regardless of proved loyalty and length of affiliations with the country and people. Their property is being expropriated by the state. Increasing secularization of life continues, with the jurisdiction of all religious courts terminated effective 31 December 1956.

The Western appearance of the commercial and shopping sections of Egypt's large cities with their Parisian fashions, American movies, and air conditioning is indicative of the impact of Western technology, trade, military power, and ideas upon the older agrarian societies of the East. The intellectuals—particularly college professors and students—are generally aware of the problems and social responsibilities associated with the glaring disparities of wealth and opportunity apparent throughout Egypt and the rest of the Middle East (except in Israel and Turkey). Student demonstrations and riots have not been uncommon. Unfortunately, a strong Arab middle class comparable to those in Western Europe and America is lacking as yet. The industrial and commercial base is small. Most of the businesses in existence are owned or controlled by foreigners. Labor, as a force in Egyptian political life, became vocal for the first time in 1950. Since that time there have been indications that labor plays a Peronista-type role supporting the "democratic" dictatorship of Colonel Nasser.

The large landholders or *effendis*, as village lords are commonly called in the Middle East, have been traditionally the most

powerful single social group in Egypt (as throughout the Arab world), closely allied with the business and financial interests in the cities. In one guise or another, oligarchical groups of varying composition have dominated domestic political life in modern Egypt. Mercurial shifts of power such as occurred in 1952 in Egypt are also characteristic of Middle Eastern political life. Xenophobia has been utilized by oligarchical groups in Egypt particularly as an almost invariably effective means of diverting the attention of the masses from their almost incredible poverty and misery, channeling discontents into hatred for the foreigner.³ Traditionally directed against the British, Egyptian xenophobia now tends to be increasingly identified with hatred of Israel and its supporters.

Ideological-Psychological Factors: Nationalism and Anti-Colonialism. The passions and political force of Arab nationalism—aroused by World War I and strengthened by the perceptible weakening of the Western colonial empires in World War II—have been further inflamed by the challenge of steady postwar Zionist expansion in Palestine which culminated in the proclamation of the state of Israel in 1948 and the subsequent humiliating defeat of the Arab forces dispatched to eject the intruder from Arabism's Holy Land.⁴ Many Arabs seriously regard the Zionist "colonization" of Israel as the latest in a series of European invasions of their land. They refuse to accept the *fait accompli* of a viable Jewish state in their midst or the mass expulsion of Arabs from Israel.

Western and especially United States spokesmen have lent seeming but misinterpreted substance to such charges by their vocal support for Israel and their references to it as a Middle Eastern bastion of Western political democracy and social progress. That it is such also provides, in a regional setting, an embarrassingly unfavorable contrast with the social indifference of the Arab ruling classes.⁵ Identification of Israel with the West and particularly the United States is furthered by the substantial flow of Western private and public funds into the Zionist

state, without which the absorption of Jewish immigrants on a large scale would have proved impossible—at least on the relatively high standard of living which the Israeli government seeks to maintain for its people. The net total of immigrants is roughly comparable to the number of Arabs leaving Israel since 1947, i.e., approximately 900,000. Thus there is little or no room now left for repatriation and resettlement of the dispossessed and embittered Arab refugees who, still crowding the United Nations camps beyond the Israeli frontiers, constitute one of the most pressing causes of Middle Eastern tension. The situation is particularly acute on the Egyptian-Gaza and Jordanian borders with Israel. There are some 200,000 refugees in the narrow Gaza Strip which projects a deep salient into Israel along the seacoast and cuts across numerous Israel-Gaza communications lines. Their preoccupation, and that of the Arab world, is with vengeance against Israel. Here again the West is associated with the hated Israelis and blamed for permitting the initial expulsion and allowing the refugee problem to drag on until repatriation was impractical if not impossible. "The West is being blamed for having created a large class of embittered, discontented emigres, many of them well-educated and politically articulate, who may constitute that firm social foundation which the anti-Western ideology hitherto lacked in the Middle East. Israel has always tried to persuade the United States that the economic rehabilitation of the Arab refugees would help to smooth the way for a political settlement, while the Arabs have contended that repatriation had to be an integral part of any settlement, and that therefore the refugees could not be absorbed into the economic life of the nations bordering on Israel."⁶

Furthermore, the Egyptian government and press have repeatedly denounced the West, particularly the United States, for procrastinating or failing to provide them with the arms they have repeatedly requested. They also assert—as do other Arab spokesmen—that whatever economic aid has been

rendered them appears to have been given grudgingly and/or for some ulterior purpose (such as effecting agreements with Britain over the Sudan or Suez); there is much justice to this complaint, but little if any to the former—considering the refusal of the Egyptians to be bound in the use of arms by Mutual Defense Agreement or other collective security qualifications.⁷

Neutralism and Opportunism: Suspicious of hidden imperialist motives, Egypt has resisted and opposed Western efforts to involve it in the creation of a Middle Eastern security organization aimed like NATO at the containment of the Soviet Union. As with arms, so with collective security; both arms and alliances are wanted for use against Israel, not Russia. The Egyptians remain unconvinced that the Middle East faces any threat of overt aggression from the USSR.

Not only has Egypt refused to join a regional defense arrangement, but it has opposed membership by other Middle Eastern states as well. It has ceaselessly denounced and attacked the Western-sponsored Baghdad Pact composed of Britain, Turkey, Iran, Pakistan, and Iraq—its only Arab state member. At the same time the Egyptian government under Colonel Nasser regards with equanimity the conclusion of arms agreements with Communist states which—unlike Western military aid agreements—impose no apparent qualifications as to their use.

Such attitudes and actions have resulted directly in the generation and exacerbation of political tensions and the periodic eruption of explosions, the most serious of which have been the two Middle Eastern crises of 1956, the Egyptian-instigated aggression against Israel in April, based on newly acquired heavy armament, and the aggressive "preventive" war launched by Israel on 29 October.⁸ They have also contributed directly to the Suez Canal crisis precipitated by the withdrawal on 19 July of the U.S. offer to assist in the financing of the High Dam at Aswan.

History and Political Development to 1952: Farouk I, who abdicated in 1952, was the last

of a dynasty that had ruled Egypt since 1805, first under Turkish suzerainty and later under the aegis of the British Crown. For the Suez Canal, built largely with Egyptian money in 1869, immensely augmented the strategic significance of Egypt's location by making it a key communications artery in the British lifeline of empire. Soon thereafter, British Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli effected a diplomatic masterstroke of imperialism by taking advantage of Khedive Ismail's financial difficulties to obtain a dominant position for the British government in the Suez Canal Company. British troops were landed to protect property and navigation rights in 1882 and were withdrawn only under pressure in 1956 when the Empire had already passed the zenith of its power. Thus from 1882 to 1914 Egypt was in effect a British possession, though nominally dependent upon the Turkish Ottoman Empire.

When the war that was ultimately to destroy all empires broke out in 1914, a British protectorate was established in Egypt. By 1922, however, the effects of Allied propaganda for national self-determination had echoed so resoundingly in Egypt that Britain acceded to the demands of aroused Arab nationalism to the extent of recognizing the country as an independent kingdom—though British forces remained in effective control.

Another milestone was reached in 1936 with the negotiation of the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty. It provided for the withdrawal of British troops from all parts of Egypt except the Nile delta and the Canal Zone, in both of which Britain's special security interests were explicitly recognized.

During World War II Egypt, though irritatingly neutral, became a battleground when Marshal Erwin Rommel's Afrika Korps threatened the Nile delta in 1941-42.

Despite the postwar effort to reduce its overseas commitments, the British Labor government could not envisage immediate relinquishment of control over the vital Suez shipping route to a politically immature and emotionally volatile people. Britain's as well as Eurasia's dependence upon the uninter-

rupted operation of the canal had in fact increased during the twentieth century with the advent of modern machine technology based in large part upon the use of petroleum products. Through the Suez artery flowed most of Britain's and Western Europe's supplies of cheap, accessible, non-dollar oil from the Middle East.

Egyptian nationalist agitation—inspired and channelized by the Wafd,⁹ the chief political instrument of the landholding oligarchy—continued, disrupting efforts at peaceful negotiations and deliberately precluding an early settlement. The British government had agreed in January 1947 to the Egyptian government's request to review the 1936 treaty, but the Wafd thereupon announced that it would not be bound by the results of negotiations with the British and proceeded to demand speedy and complete eradication of all British influence in both Egypt and the Sudan. This tactic served to set off student riots, cause clashes between British troops and Egyptians, and embroil the country in a seething cauldron of Anglophobia.

In a series of policy statements in late 1946 and early 1947 the British government took initial steps to prepare the people of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan for self-government—moves that were protested by the Egyptian government—and declared that in no event would the condominium be terminated until the Sudanese were given the opportunity to freely determine the future political alignment of the Sudan—whether for full independence, union with Egypt, or a place in the British Commonwealth.

The Egyptians thereupon broke off negotiations with the British and threatened to take the matter up with the United Nations. British troops were now withdrawn from the delta into the Canal Zone (March 1947).

In 1950 the Wafd, running on a reform and anti-British platform, handily won the elections and control of the government. Important reforms were introduced in various fields, but zeal for cleaning up the country abated as the nationalist hue and cry for

immediate withdrawal of the British was taken up. The British government however refused to bow to threats. Both Foreign Secretary Ernest Bevin in 1950 and his successor, Herbert Morrison, in 1951 declared that existing treaties would remain in force until changed by mutual agreement. Egyptian Foreign Minister Salah al-Din countered with a statement that the British had through Morrison's statement closed the door to negotiations and that the only remaining alternative was to abrogate the Anglo-Egyptian Treaty. On 8 October 1951 the Egyptian parliament introduced legislation to terminate the 1899 and 1936 treaties governing the British position in the Sudan and the Canal Zone respectively.

To prevent a complete breach of Anglo-Egyptian relations, which might seriously impair not only the effort to build a Middle Eastern defense system but also the NATO effort in Europe, the governments of the United States, France, Turkey, and Great Britain on 13 October 1951 offered Egypt equal partnership in a new Middle Eastern Defense Command which would be established as an extension of the North Atlantic alliance into the Middle East. These Four Power Proposals, as they were known, were aimed at stabilizing and strengthening the regional defense of the Middle East against the threat of Soviet expansion.¹⁰ Adoption of the proposals would have insured the defense of Egypt and the safeguarding of the canal.

The Egyptian government promptly rejected the Four Power Proposals and simultaneously abrogated the 1899 and 1936 treaties with Britain. However, the four powers renewed their invitation on 10 November.¹¹ The Wafdist answer was the instigation of anti-British disorders in late 1951 and early 1952. Getting out of hand, they developed into riots and incendiarism at Cairo on 25 January 1952, shocking even Egyptians and posing the threat of social revolution. Apparently native discontents were now being directed, in part at least, against the almost chronic state of corruption and incompetence of disguised oligarchical rule.

Revolution and Reform

Between January and July a rapid succession of unstable ministries culminated in the government of Premier Ahmed Naguib al-Hilali Pasha which, attempting to pursue an anti-corruption campaign, was forced out of office by the Court and financial interests which feared involvement.¹² Thereupon, a clique of younger Army officers led by General Mohammed Naguib Bey intervened to insure prosecution of the campaign. Proclaiming himself commander of the Egyptian Army, General Naguib demanded reforms and an end of corruption in the administration of the government. King Farouk, unable to rally his adherents, abdicated the throne on 26 July, three days after initiation of the bloodless coup d'etat. In August a regency was established in favor of Farouk's infant son, who was proclaimed ruler of Egypt. On 7 September General Naguib, a political moderate, became Premier, the former incumbent being displaced on charges of slowness in starting the land reform program.

Before undertaking a discussion of the reform program, it is advisable to take brief note of the new regime's handling of foreign relations which, as is now generally recognized, cannot be neatly segregated or isolated from domestic policy.

Improvement of Foreign Relations under Naguib: Virtually the only Egyptian leader "to refrain from demagogic attacks on Great Britain as a scapegoat,"¹³ General Naguib speedily improved relations with the British and quietly paved the way for a definitive solution of the Sudan question in February 1953.¹⁴ With the help of the United States government, the groundwork was also laid for the Suez agreement of July 1954 providing for the evacuation of British forces from the Canal Zone within 20 months. However, it was Colonel Nasser who, after purging Naguib,¹⁵ effected and received credit for this achievement which astounded the Arab world. (Ironically, Nasser took over the canal itself about three weeks after the last British troops had left.)

Most significant, however, was the rapid

succession of systematic reforms which it was now possible for Naguib and the Revolutionary Command Council to launch and/or enlarge upon.

General Reforms and Political Changes: In 1950 important reforms had been introduced in the fields of education, administration, charitable work, taxation, and social services. But, as previously noted, they had generally foundered amidst "the cries of the superpatriots (which) are the death tocsins of reform."¹⁶ Now, the Revolutionary Command Council, as the military oligarchy styled itself, proceeded under General Naguib to follow up and expand these and other reforms. Basic changes were made in the governmental structure and in the fundamentally important but hitherto highly sensitive area of agrarian economy. It is with this latter development that we are primarily concerned. Yet it should be noted that within the next year the monarchy was abolished and a republican form of government adopted. A strong-arm military rule apparently succeeded in quashing, at least temporarily, the Wafd and the Moslem Brotherhood¹⁷ which posed the chief internal threat to the government.

Land Reform Program: Redistribution. On 9 September 1952 the revolutionary government undertook a reform of crucial importance for the people of Egypt and the Arab world. Its land reform law struck at the very root of a major source of socio-political tension and instability in the Middle East (except for Israel and Turkey)—the appalling economic chasm between the *effendis* or village lords and the *fellaheen*—a situation which hitherto had been treated in Egypt too with the utmost social indifference by the "haves."

The Agricultural Reform Decree made it illegal for any one to own more than 200 acres of land, and provided for the redistribution of excess land within five years.¹⁸ This should have theoretically released for redistribution about 800,000 acres, assuming the present owners desired to retain the legal minimum. An allowance of 100 acres beyond

the minimum was also permitted for an owner's children. This and other exceptions provided by law reduced the acreage available for redistribution to 560,000. This totaled less than ten per cent of the total cultivated land.

Since 1952 these 560,000 acres have been in process of reapportionment to some 200,000 new owners who are required to pay for their land allotments over a 30-year period at three per cent annual interest. Land is distributed in plots of two to five acres to peasants owning less than five acres.²⁰

Previous owners are compensated in state bonds and urged to invest them in private industry.

Another important part of the land reform law provides for relief from one of the most crying abuses prevalent in the densely populated agrarian societies of the Middle and Far East. Land rents are limited to seven times the amount of the basic land tax. (In lands from Egypt to Japan it has not been uncommon for landlords to extort 40 to 90 per cent of the harvest as payment for rent, with the government sometimes taking a goodly share of the remainder. Socio-economic reforms such as the land reform in Japan since World War II have mitigated this situation in some areas.)

Agricultural Productivity: Probably the most significant sections of the land reform law however are those providing for substantial increases in agricultural productivity and hence of the *fellah's* income and standard of living. Increased productivity can come only from higher crop yields and better utilization and care of the available resources. Specific means of achieving greater productivity include provision and better use of fertilizers, improved seed, crop rotation, animal husbandry, etc. These techniques of advanced agriculture are developed chiefly through the medium of cooperatives to which the new owners are required to belong.

In addition to an estimated 2,000-odd rural cooperatives, hundreds of rural social centers sometimes referred to as combined-services

units have been established. In these fortunate localities, village progress centers about these units which perform medical, economic, social, educational, and even political functions.²⁰ Control is expected to be turned over gradually to the villagers.

Some Results of the Land Reform Program: Results of the Agricultural Reform Decree are reportedly generally satisfactory. The changeover to small individual ownership is credited with effecting a 25 per cent increase in the yield of the sugar-cane belt in Upper Egypt within a two-year period.²¹

One experienced foreign observer reported that in Sharkia Province which he visited, the income of the peasants in the land reform areas had doubled by mid-1956. Average net income had risen from 8.5 Egyptian pounds before the reform to 18.9 pounds. It was also reported that progress has been made in the distribution of improved animal stock and with a program for cattle insurance—a matter of vital importance for a *fellah* operating at or near the subsistence level. Above all, the cooperatives were reportedly slowly overcoming the suspicion of the *fellah*, persuading him through the attainment of tangible benefits that the various innovations were truly directed at improving his—and not somebody else's—welfare.

Among the adverse effects of the operation of the law, the increase in rural unemployment and the prevalence of depressed wages (despite the minimum wage law) are probably the most obvious; numerous instances of half-pay or less are reportedly common. The breakup of the larger landholdings, which formerly provided part time employment opportunities, has thus hurt the cash income of many accustomed to supplementing their income in this manner.

Aswan High Dam Project: Extension of the area under cultivation constitutes another aspect of the over-all drive to increase agricultural production. The National Production Council, established by Naguib in January 1953, announced in the following year a 10-year plan which emphasized the necessity of further land reclamation and the

extension of social services—notably health and welfare projects.²²

The importance of implementing plans for the costly High Dam project at Aswan was stressed by the council. This project is expected to provide for the sustenance of millions of additional people by raising agricultural output an estimated 50 per cent after completion (in ten years). It will reclaim about 2,000,000 acres of land for cultivation, supply water for permanent rice transplantation of an additional 700,000 acres, and convert another 700,000 acres of one-crop land in Upper Egypt to perennial irrigation.²³ Measured against the present 6,000,000 acres of cultivated land, the magnitude of the projected increase and its significance to the Egyptian economy can readily be appreciated. Moreover, project plans call for the High Dam to produce an additional six billion kilowatt hours of electricity annually.²⁴

Agricultural Reform and Industrialization: Land Reform had been the Number Two objective of the revolutionary program. In a speech of June 1956, President Nasser stated that lands in excess of 200 acres which before September 1952 had constituted 20 per cent of the total cultivated land, had been reduced to six per cent. Thus the redistribution phase was largely accomplished by mid-1956.

Considering that as of 1951 two million peasants owned less than one acre of land and that another million and a half were completely landless, it is apparent that the distribution of small plots to 200,000 peasants—however praiseworthy—has not done much more than temporarily alleviate the problem of population pressure on the land.

It is the long range implications of agricultural rejuvenation which assume enormous significance in the light of Egypt's acute problem of population pressure on the land. By increasing the productivity of the present acreage and by extending the area under cultivation, the income and living standards of the *fellaheen* affected thereby will rise commensurately. Through this gradual process of raising the farm income of a

predominantly rural population, the basis for a substantial domestic market for Egyptian-manufactured goods can be realistically and firmly established. As industry in turn expands, it should inevitably siphon off and productively employ much of the surplus (including unemployed) farm labor which now depresses already low wages and living standards; the expansion of factory labor force should simultaneously boost consumer purchasing power. In time then industrial and agricultural production, assiduously cultivated and encouraged by government at home and with the invaluable assistance of outside capital (foreign investments, inter-governmental grants and loans), may reasonably be expected to successfully absorb future population growth. Thus the present stage of the agricultural reform program is but the first in the huge and complex task of raising over-all farm income, diversifying the economy through industrialization, and productively employing the entire nation. It is these more complex and continuing aspects of the agricultural reform program—necessarily more tedious and less spectacular in nature and more difficult of realization—that are jeopardized by the defiantly martial quality and nationalistic emphasis in recent Egyptian foreign policy.

Foreign Policy: Aspirations vs. Needs and Capabilities

In light of the significance of the Aswan High Dam project, it is hard to understand why President Nasser did not more readily respond to the offer of financial assistance made in December 1955 by the United States—motivated though the latter was by the Soviet arms deal of September 1955 and a determination to prevent the Soviets from preempting the Aswan project for themselves too.²⁵ Making no public response, the Egyptian dictator chose to continue piling up heavy armament purchased from the Soviet bloc at a prohibitive cost to the Egyptian people of hundreds of millions of dollars; Egypt's chief export (80 per cent) and source of badly needed foreign exchange, cotton, was mortgaged for several years in

advance against the arms contract. Coordinating over-all Arab strategy in March, Nasser proceeded to use his new arms against Israel in an aggressive series of ever larger and deeper border penetrations; the threat in April of a Middle Eastern war over Palestine was suddenly terminated by Soviet support for a United Nations cease-fire—a probably surprising development for Nasser in view of the previous (and subsequent) pro-Arab policy of the USSR. By June or early July President Nasser had made up his mind to accept exclusively the U.S., British and World Bank offers and reject Soviet participation in the Aswan project.²⁶ It appeared obvious that he had not been able to get better terms on Aswan from Moscow, and that the Kremlin was not ready to support his policy of immediate force against Israel—lest perhaps its possible success terminate the Arab-Israeli dispute (which the Soviets have no desire to see settled) or even lead to Western military intervention and the stationing of large forces near the Soviet frontiers.

At this juncture, however, the United States government, understandably provoked by Nasser's attitude and behaviour, withdrew its offer of aid (\$56 millions).²⁷ Britain and the World Bank, whose assurances of financial assistance toward the Aswan project were contingent upon that of the United States, did likewise. Instead of exploring the admittedly touchy situation diplomatically or continuing to wait things out, the Egyptian dictator, who in his *Philosophy of Revolution* declared that the Arab world was beckoning with "roles of heroes" to be played, now placed the whole Aswan scheme and much else in jeopardy by making a policy decision that would have done a Wafdist credit: strike out in retaliation²⁸ against this insult to the national honor (and to the "hero" of the Arab world), risking all the social and economic gains won and throwing aside the best chances of securing the long-term foreign aid which the \$1.2 billion High Dam project requires.

Although a case can be made out for the

decision to nationalize the canal company, the question of ultimate cost to the Egyptian people of such decisions should in any case receive the highest priority. It must not be forgotten that the company was an Egyptian-chartered one, operating a facility internationally recognized by treaty as "an integral part of Egypt," and that its lease was due to expire in 1968—about the time the Aswan High Dam project would be completed if Egypt were able to secure within a year or two the necessary funds for the initial capital investment.

Actually the Revolution had already achieved its Number One objective of ridding Egypt and the Sudan completely of British troops and political control—thanks largely to the moderation of General Naguib and the good offices of the United States (and of course the evident British willingness to negotiate). The last British troops left in June 1956.

Disregarding this tremendous achievement and the lesson it offered, President Nasser in June 1956 called for the mobilization of national energies for the realization of grandiose foreign objectives. As reported by *The Manchester Guardian*, he concluded an important speech in that month as follows: "We must become strong so that we can become free and liberate all Arabism's lands—from Morocco to Bagdad." Already in April Col. Nasser had told the Officers' Club at Zamalek: "What we advocate today springs from the conscience of this homeland, its feelings, and its blood." Upon nationalizing the Suez Canal Company, he declared: "This, O citizens, is the battle in which we are now involved. It is a battle against imperialism and the methods and tactics of imperialism, and a battle against Israel, the vanguard of imperialism. . . . We shall all work so that the Arab homeland extends from the Atlantic Ocean to the Persian Gulf. . . . We shall all fight to the last drop of our blood." With the temporary abatement of the Suez Canal crisis in late September and early October, Arab raids from Egypt and Jordan were stepped up against Israel, and President

Nasser boldly expressed the Egyptian government's intentions in the following statement of 14 October:²⁹

I am not solely fighting against Israel. My task is to deliver the Arab world from destruction through Israel's intrigue, which has its roots abroad. Our hatred is very strong. There is no sense in talking about peace with Israel. There is not even the smallest place for negotiations.

Conclusion: If Colonel Nasser sincerely means what he says about his objectives—and events provide little reason to believe otherwise—the adoption and implementation of such a foreign policy can only mean that he has subordinated to grandiose foreign aspirations the tedious, painstaking, and persevering task of solving the acute problems of population pressure (on limited arable land) through agricultural improvement and industrialization. Such means, we have seen, appear to provide the only reasonable prospect of a permanent solution compatible with the nation's dignity and well-being.

In the dangerous game of opportunistic neutralism which Nasser is playing to advance his interests, he is being aided immeasurably by "the change of international and military circumstance in the past year (which) has suddenly enabled relatively small Powers to assert themselves, especially if they can strike a political note which gets others vibrating in sympathy with them."³⁰

However, embarking on foreign adventures for the sake of retaining the leadership of Egypt in the Arab League, extending her hegemony to include the whole Arab world, and carving a niche for himself as one of the great heroes of Arab history can only serve to antagonize or estrange the powers which through a wiser financial and technical assistance policy in future are capable of helping the Egyptian people most unselfishly—the United States and Great Britain.

¹ Capt. R. R. Flugel and Dr. H. C. Vent, "The Palestine Problem," Pt. I, *The Social Studies*, Feb. '57; Capt. R. R. Flugel, "The Palestine Problem," Pt. II, *The Social Studies*, Mar. '57.

² The provisions and effects of the Agricultural

Reform Decree of 9 Sept. 1952 are discussed below under the heading, "Revolution and Reform."

³ Haas and Whiting, *Dynamics of International Relations*. N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1955, p. 345. "From inception of the constitution in 1923 to the seizure of power by military junta in 1952, the Wafd was the self-styled spokesman for Egypt's electorate. . . . The Wafd, organized around the exclusive purpose of driving Britain from Egypt, became an amalgam of groups whose use of xenophobia served their own ends. At the top stood entrenched land interests. . . . Manipulation of land taxes, raising of tariffs, and regulating legislation to facilitate speculation all served to enrich this group at the expense of the fellah. Demands for economic reform failed as internal tensions were channeled against a safe target, the British."

⁴ Jerusalem is an object of Moslem as well as Jewish and Christian religious sentiment. Mecca of course is the chief object of Islamic pilgrimage.

⁵ Emil Lengyel, "Social Tensions in the Middle East," *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, July 1951. "Israel has shown the Middle East that it is possible to remove glaring injustices and to introduce a social system free from great extremes. . . . There is no completely egocentric effendi class monopolizing wealth and government power. Nor is there great poverty—beyond the initial hardships of settlement. . . . Social reform in the West's most enlightened sense is indigenous in the land."

⁶ R. Strausz-Hupe, A. J. Cottrell, and J. E. Dougherty (eds). *American-Asian Tensions*. N.Y.: F.A. Praeger, 1956, pp. 158-159.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 176. "Between 1946 and 1954, all the Arab states together had received from the United States a total of \$87,000,000 chiefly in the form of technical assistance and credits, while Israel had received \$350,000,000, 60 percent of which was in the form of aid grants."

⁸ For details the reader is referred to "The Palestine Problem," cited above.

⁹ See footnote 2.

¹⁰ U. S. *Dept. of State Bull.*, XXV: 647-648, 22 Oct. '51 contains text of proposals.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 817-818, 19 Nov. '51.

¹² D. S. Franck (formerly with Dept. of State working on Middle Eastern affairs). "Egypt." Article in *The New International 1953 Yearbook*, p. 150.

¹³ Franck, *op. cit.*

¹⁴ The condominium was continued for three years, at the end of which elections were to be held to determine the political complexion of the Sudan. The Sudanese voted for complete independence, though they remain affiliated to some extent with Egypt through membership in the Arab League.

¹⁵ *The Manchester Guardian* (5 July 1956), commenting on President Nasser's sweeping victory in the Napoleonic-type plebiscite of June 1956, compared the two Egyptian leaders as follows: "Colonel Nasser's triumph would have been the happier, but for the presence of a skeleton in the cupboard of the Junta. General Naguib, a man of fine qualities, who deserves well of his country, is still under virtual house arrest. He had been stripped of power for the crime of calling for a return to parliamentary government, and six months later was deprived even of his nominal tenure of the presidency. Colonel Nasser's majority (99 percent) shows that he has preferred a more military conception of democracy than did General Naguib." Cf. "The New Egyptian Ministers," in same issue.

¹⁶ Lengyel, *op. cit.*

¹⁷ Repressive action against the Moslem Brotherhood, a right-wing political organization not averse to utilizing the technique of assassination, was not undertaken until 1954, when it was allegedly linked with a plot to remove Col. Nasser who had usurped the popular Naguib's position as head of the government. See C. P. Harris, Article, "Egypt," in *The Americana 1955 Annual*, p. 219.

¹⁸ Data on reform of the landholding system are derived largely from the excellent dispatches from Cairo of the special correspondent of *The Manchester Guardian* between July 1956 and January 1957.

¹⁹ Franck, *op. cit.*

²⁰ Based on information provided by E. R. Murrow in 90-minute telecast on Egypt and Israel in *See It Now*, 13 Mar. '56.

²¹ Gamal Abdel Nasser. "The Egyptian Revolution." *Foreign Affairs*, Jan. 1955.

²² A five-year austerity plan was already in operation, dating from January 1953. Budgetary austerity was required to cope with the financial crisis inherited from the monarchy. Satisfactory results were gradually obtained. The 1955 arms-for-cotton deal however mortgaged Egypt's chief resources for years to come, for unproductive armaments.

²³ Nasser, *op. cit.*

²⁴ Harris, *op. cit.*

²⁵ J. C. Hurewitz. "Our Mistakes in the Middle

East." *The Atlantic*, Dec. 1956, p. 51. ". . . Instead of waiting for Egypt to appeal to us, Washington, with London in tow, began pleading with Cairo to accept Western financial aid for . . . the Aswan High Dam to forestall a possible Soviet offer."

²⁶ Max Freedman. "Egypt Looks to the West." *Manchester Guardian Wkly.*, 19 July 1956, p. 3.

²⁷ See *Foreign Policy Bulletin*, v. 36, nr. 1 (15 Sept. 56) for a discussion of factors involved. Cf. J. C. Hurewitz, *op. cit.*

²⁸ *Manchester Guardian Wkly.*, 27 Sept. 56, p. 3 comments editorially on this point: ". . . The West's withdrawal of its promised aid for the High Dam challenged him to turn again to Moscow. But this time Nasser chose another and still more dangerous course. . . . The nationalisation of the Suez Canal Company was plainly an act of hostile intent planned in resentment at the Western rebuff. To Nasser, that rebuff was also a hostile act, intended to undermine his ascendancy in the Arab world, and it is difficult to dispute this judgment. . . . But no one has yet succeeded in challenging the legality of nationalisation."

²⁹ Ambassador Abba Eban. "The Israel-Egypt Conflict—The Inherent Right of Self-defense." Address, 1st Emergency Session on the Palestine Question, General Assembly of the United Nations, 1 Nov. 1956. Reprinted in *Vital Speeches*, 15 Nov. 1956, p. 68.

³⁰ *Manchester Guardian Wkly.*, 5 July 1956.

The Geopolitical Pattern of Indonesia

ALLAN M. PITKANEN, JACOB A. RIIS

High School, Los Angeles, California

PART I

A 19th century Dutch poet said that Indonesia was like a "girdle of emerald flung across the equator." In company with many other travelers who have viewed these "isles of the Indies," he must have been inspired by the exuberance of the Indonesian flora, the picturesqueness of the terraced ricefields, the lovely scene of lakes, waterfalls, valleys, and mountains, all that make up the beauty of this land of islands. Straddling the equatorial belt, between the main mass of Asia and Australia, lush, tropical, Indonesia is the largest agglomeration of islands to form a single country anywhere in the world. "Nusantara," or archipelago—as the Indonesians affectionately term their 3,100-island homeland, was once Holland's prize colony, the world traveler's delight, the Orient's chief source of oil and tin, Japan's greedy dream of expanding empire. All this was the 300-

year-old child of Mother Holland until the child at last yearned to be free.

However, the birthpangs of independence have brought depressing and disturbing experiences to the new nation, and many Indonesians have wondered about "merdeka"—freedom. The complex geographical situation inherent in this vast archipelago, added to the difficulties of fusing the idealism of a long dream with the realism of the present world ideological conflict, causes Indonesians to act out an independent neutrality that focuses attention on them from the West as well as the East.

To better understand the pattern of life Indonesians face because of general geographic influences, let us look at the picture.

THE PHYSICAL ELEMENTS

Islands

These 3,000 miles of verdant islands, stretching out over a distance similar to the range from San Francisco to Bermuda, are

usually grouped into the Greater Sunda Islands of Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, and adjoining smaller islands that lie on the Sunda continental shelf of Asia; and the Lesser Sunda Islands from Bali to beyond Timor and the Moluccas on the Australian continental shelf. From north to south the distance is nearly 1,250 miles. The total area is 740,000 square miles, or a quarter that of the United States.

To present a more detailed picture, a highlighting of the major islands will follow, excluding the Irian area which is still in Dutch hands, its ownership in dispute.

Westward from primitive New Guinea are literally hundreds of islands all catalogued as the Moluccas. Rich in cloves, nutmeg, cinnamon, copra, and vital as naval bases, not more than fifty can be said to be consequential in size; nevertheless, their total area is estimated to almost equal the area of Indiana and the total population is perhaps 400,000.

Generally, most of the islands are rugged, even mountainous. In every case, interior transportation is difficult. Roads can hardly be said to exist; and there are no railroads. This lack of development seems the more remarkable when it is recalled that these were the Spice Islands of an earlier time which had long attracted the interest of Europeans.

Here, as in much of the East Indies, are swamplands, forests, mountains, insects, and heat. The residents of Halmahera, the largest island, numbering some 50,000 in an irregular area of 6,700 square miles, are mostly of hybrid Malay stock, very primitive in their culture and of the type known to the Mohammedan Malays as Alfurs, or "wild men." There are no towns of consequence. The island of Buru has been completely explored only within the last few years. Large Ceram, most centrally located and steeply mountainous, is heavily wooded for the most part. Its many streams are almost useless for navigation. Many hot springs dot this volcanic island. Though earthquakes are infrequent, a disastrous one in 1899 killed about 4,000 people. Out of a total population estimated

at 60,000, some 16,000 are Moslems; about 12,000 profess Christianity; the rest are primitives and animists.

Small, volcanic Amboina island, 31 miles by 10, is perhaps most important of the Moluccas; it has a naval base near the site of ancient Fort Victoria and is much more healthful for Europeans than most regions in the Moluccas.

The large and strangely shaped island of Celebes, about 70,000 square miles, has the shape of a starfish with one point gone. As large as New England and New Jersey, almost the whole of the island is mountainous; precipices often rise vertically for hundreds of feet. The rivers, fairly numerous, are never large, though swift and with waterfalls. The narrow coastal plain is usually lined with coral reefs and shoals. Large portions of the land are densely overgrown with tangled, vine-laced forests, with some patch-work areas of plateau grassland.

Out of a population of some 4,000,000 some 8,000 are Europeans, 40,000 Chinese, and 9,000 other "Asiatics." The natives, generally divided into three Mongoloid-Malayan groups, used to be fiercely interested in head-hunting and fought perennially among themselves. Until recent years they were all pagan, but since the turn of the present century a good many have been converted to Christianity. Half of them believe in a Mohammedanism characteristically intermixed with superstitions and animism.

Macassar, however, is a thriving modern city of 85,000 people. One may hear over twenty different languages and even more dialects at some time or other on its streets.

Borneo, the largest island and as large as France, attached to a remnant British colony to the north, realistically should be famous for its forests, plantation crops, gold, coal, and petroleum, but head-hunters made it better known even though they have been greatly mollified. Rising from a vast submarine plateau that lies only a very little below the surface of the sea, this habitat of three million proto-Malayans is surrounded by coastal waters that in many places are

dangerously shallow for shipping. Its coast, for the most part, is low, marshy, sandy, or even swampy, and frequently continues so for miles into the interior. With such a coast and because of the notable lack of good harbors, most of Borneo's seaports had to be located miles upstream from the mouths of the most important rivers.

Mountains form fairly definite ranges scattered in strange disorder about the island's elevated area. Most of these 290,000 square miles have been explored but what little development has taken place has been done along the coasts and main river valleys. Set in the middle of the equator, the rainfall is heavy throughout its thick, hot forests, and though the "wet" and "dry" seasons differ in sections, nowhere is there a season of incessant rain or one completely dry. Sometimes the rainfall is exceedingly heavy; squalls of wind, frequent and severe thunderstorms with vivid displays of lightning are characteristic and provoke an excessive humidity.

By far the greater portion of Borneo is heavily clad with luxuriant vegetation and in the extensive forests the greatest of the trees is the tapan. Out of more than 500 species of trees, at least 60 are of real economic value.

Sumatra, as large as California, is the westernmost and third largest of the Indonesian isles. Rubber, petroleum, coal, and tobacco, are its prizes. This thousand-mile, cigar-shaped island has a high volcanic mountain chain. A number of volcanoes are still alive and occasionally scatter slaggy lava and ash over large areas. Because of the sediment that the rivers are constantly carrying, the whole eastern coastline is slowly advancing; this development is aided both by the vast growth of mangroves in the swamps and by the sand and ocean silt washed up to the low shoreline from the easily stirred bottom of the very shallow sea. Palembang, an important oil center, is more than 56 miles from salt water by way of the crooked course of the Musi River. Between the eastern seacoast quagmires and the western mountain ranges lies one of the most extensive and valuable

agricultural regions in the East Indies—parts of it are utterly wild while other sections have great plantations.

Communications are more thoroughly developed in Sumatra than in any other portion of the Indies, except Java. The principal cities normally have air service that connects them with each other as well as with Singapore and Djakarta, and also with routes operating between Europe and Australia. Roads and railroads extend out wherever possible, considering the swamps and lack of population.

The great mosquito-bearing swamps of Sumatra give her a bad reputation in connection with malaria. We Island, off the northern tip, is more healthful than many parts of the west.

The 115,000 square miles of forests are rich in rare woods, and gutta percha, camphor, benzoin, and dammar gum are common products. Bamboo grows in great impenetrable clusters. Rattan twines its long barbed vines through the forests and, together with other vines, often ties the whole into an almost solid mat of vegetation. Much of the island is made up of wide, rolling grasslands. Alang-alang and wild sugar-cane, and other grasses grow from three to twelve feet tall and are so strong and so assertive that when given an opportunity in almost any forest opening, they gain such a hold that the forest cannot regain the ground it had lost.

Besides coal and copper, the most valuable mineral product is petroleum, found in two widely separated fields. The Palembang-Jambi field is the more important, and when it was supplying 80,000 barrels a day it accounted for more than half of all the oil produced in the Netherlands East Indies.

Within forty years the population has tripled to around ten million. This increase is due not only to the elimination of old inter-tribal quarrels and to improved health conditions, but also to the government-encouraged migration of certain Javanese and other native farmers.

Java, the heart of Indonesia and the home of over fifty million of its people, is the fifth

largest of the islands and by far the most important, certainly politically. Rectangular in shape, 625 miles long, Java differs in many ways from the other islands. Djakarta (Batavia), the former capital of the Dutch Netherlands, is here. This area is developed far beyond any other island of the archipelago. It is also more heavily populated than any other region of comparable size in all the world; its native civilization had reached a high point of cultural development at least a thousand years ago.

Djakarta with over 600,000 population is a magnificent city for this region. Surabaya, the naval base and commercial port, and Semarang, a port of consequence, are cities of 300,000. Bandung, high in the mountains in the center of the island, is comfortably healthful, and is the cultural center and the "white-man's" town. Verdant Buitenzorg is a beauty spot and an escape from the heat. Jokjakarta, the seat of the Sultan and his famous palace, the Kraton, is the center of Javanese culture and the scene of ceremonial dancing and native theatrical festivals.

Considering that Java is slightly smaller than New York State and supports an agricultural population of some 49,000,000, about a third of the entire population of the United States, it seems remarkable that only about half of its area is under cultivation. And it seems equally strange that irrigation should play so important a part in a land that has such heavy rainfall. Rice, of course, explains the irrigation — much more rice can be produced in water-covered paddies than from natural-growing areas. The fact that about 60% of Java's agricultural land is used for rice-growing explains why widespread irrigation is required.

Fish and rice are the main Javanese dishes though meat is sometimes eaten. Pork is anathema to all Mohammedans, and Javanese believe in Allah. Formerly the Javanese were Buddhists and even yet, despite their acceptance of Mohammedanism, they retain more than a few Buddhist beliefs and customs. Moslem mosques are to be found in every town of consequence, and tens of thou-

sands of Javanese have made the pilgrimage to Mecca.

Polygamy, another Moslem privilege, appears to be on the wane and is practised mainly by the wealthier Javanese who limit themselves to four wives. Among the common people, one wife is the rule—not because of objections to polygamy, however, but for purely economic reasons.

The Javanese fondness for their children creates strong family units. Poverty troubles them less than one might imagine. Javanese women in spite of their Mohammedanism, have some independence, and none of them go veiled. Marriages occur early, when girls are around fourteen and boys, sixteen; and if it is impossible for them to set up an establishment of their own, the young newlyweds live with the wife's parents until they can.

Regardless of what political forces predominate in Java the fact that the normal unit in Javanese life is the desa, or village, functioning under a village chief, is significant. There are also large and important native states which retain much of their autonomy, and scores of sultans, rajahs, and other native princes, still wielding certain clearly defined though limited powers, to bring about a certain Javanese balance.

THE ECONOMIC ELEMENTS *Food*

If an ample and nutritious diet is the first step toward health, the Indonesians have scarcely taken the first step; hunger is never far from their concern.

About three-quarters of the working population are farmers, producing 75% of the national income, which is one of the lowest in the world, something under \$40 per capita. Not that each person sees that much cash; all over the archipelago thousands of agricultural families seldom have occasion to deal with money.

As in all of Southeast Asia, rice is the first and most important food. Unfortunately nearly all Asiatics prefer white rice which means highly milled rice with the outer covering containing the vitamins entirely removed. Lacking the vitamins, people de-

velop beriberi. Teaching people what to eat is a slow process when illiteracy is high and modern mass communication does not exist.

Corn, grown in dry upland fields where the soil is less fertile, is not quite up to Iowa standards. Cassava is the potato of the Indonesian diet. Never a luxury and often a monotonous necessity, its food value is not high. In the last two decades soybeans have been coming into common use. Following a crop of irrigated rice, they grow rapidly; close to a million acres are now planted, but the yield is only half the yield in the U. S.A. Peanuts and sweet potatoes are popular standbys.

The Dutch introduced many good European vegetables, but the Indonesians are not great vegetable-eaters.

Fruits are abundant though not always cheap. Bananas come in all sizes. Papayas are relatively inexpensive and rich in vitamin-A, but the people do not know it. Mangos, pineapples, breadfruit, are easily obtained.

In a land where daily consumption runs around 2,000 calories and 1 1/4 ounces of protein per day is average for a manual worker, production of good grains, vegetables, and fruits is highly important.

Fish is the principal protein supplier. Not only the ocean, but lakes, swamps, rivers, ponds, paddy ditches—almost every water hole as large as a dining table—contains fish, if stocked at regular intervals. Strangely, in spite of the common abundance of fish, Indonesia has one of the lowest average fish consumption records of the maritime countries—only one-seventh the basic requirement estimated by nutrition authorities.

Without doubt, foreign capital directed with skill by intensive scientific research, combined with cheap labor and a favorable environment, had transformed large areas of wilderness into productive sources of commodities for the world market, pre-war; and Java, of all the islands, was the most productive.

This productivity resulted in Indonesia's

contributing 90% of the world's quinine, 85% of the pepper, 65% of the kapok, 1/3 of the rubber and sisal, 1/4 of the palm oil and copra, and 1/5 of the tea.

Minerals

Though great quantities of mineral deposits are supposedly existent, actual surveys have been spotty. Adequate appraisal would require trained prospectors with apparatus, time, and budget. Coal deposits are only scratched. The present output of coal is not large because of general unrest and poor management. In 1940 some 7,000 miners produced 2 million tons of coal; in 1952 some 10,000 miners produced only 792,000 tons—a typical illustration of production shrinkage under Indonesian "merdeka"—freedom.

Indonesia furnishes about 1/5 of the world's tin, exceeding Bolivia, but exceeded by Malaya. At the beginning of the Korean War the price of tin dropped disastrously. U.S.A., formerly a good tin buyer, had an ample supply on hand but now lends support to the price in order to keep production open. The miners are largely Chinese, originally snared into the tin islands of Bangka, Billiton, and Singkep by ships' agents who combed the China coast offering false promises and small advance payments. Delivered at the mine, a skilled Chinese craftsman brought \$15. However, these imported workers, often little better than slaves, learned the business, prospered, and eventually took over so that now the Chinese communities there are relatively well-to-do.

Nickel mines were under construction before the war. During Japanese occupation the Celebes mines employed 4,000 workers. Diamonds are mined in Borneo where the Dutch-trained native diamond-cutters are famous for their precision work. The largest bauxite mines in Southeast Asia are on Butan Island, just south of Singapore. The 1940 production of 7,938,000 metric tons of petroleum was the largest yield between California and Iran. There are sulphur and manganese deposits in Java. Salt is a government monopoly and production varies as greatly as 500% in three years.

Millions of Indonesians scarcely know there are oil wells and further millions do not care who owns the oil, just so they can light their little lamps. But there is noise enough about nationalization of this industry. The pro-nationalizationists get fired up with fuel furnished in part by communist rabble-rousers about "Indonesia for Indonesians," and knowing little about the art of attracting capital or the impossibility of developing resources without it, they produce the high-sounding argument: "Somebody gets rich, why not we?"

The argument against nationalization lists this fact: Five out of the eight oil companies there have been in recent operation; of these, the Dutch BPM, the Standard Vacuum, and Caltex Pacific dominate the crude oil reserves, estimated at a billion barrels—1.05% of the world reserves and 1.84% of the present world production.

Industry

In the prewar days practically all industry was confined to the great estates, European-owned or leased and managed. The estates developed the export crops which formed the bulk of the wealth of the Indies and the bulwark of Dutch economy. Europe furnished the capital and initiative while the Indies furnished the labor. The Europeans pioneered by bringing in cinchona from the high Andes, cocoa from Brazil, rubber from the Amazon basin, tobacco from South America, oil palm from West Africa, coffee from Belgian Congo, tea from India, China, and Japan. Prewar, some \$800,000,000—Dutch, British, American, French, Belgian—were invested in 2,400 estates providing one-quarter of the males of Java with jobs. Earlier Javanese feudal landlords frequently rented out portions of their domains to include the labor of peasants so that a man might be forced to work up to 250 days for little or no compensation. Of course, if the peasant had not worked for the estate-owner, he would have been forced into the serfdom of the native prince, but the common-people appear to have forgotten that fact. In Sumatra, as late as the mid-thirties,

more than one in twenty of the coolies were under penal sanction codes. Gradually, however, the small landholders have given competition to the estates so that since 1948 the small holders' exports have risen to two-thirds the total value shipped out.

Practically anyone can grow a cocoanut tree and almost everyone does. In copra-producing areas around 75% of the population is dependent upon this dried cocoanut meat, the third largest export. Because 95% of the crop is grown by small holders and much of it goes for home consumption, appraisal of actual production is difficult.

Indonesia was also the second largest exporter of tobacco in the world, exceeded only by the United States, but at present exports are curtailed by insecurity and by the need to use tobacco lowlands to produce more food for the increasing population.

For almost 200 years Java shared with Mocha the traditional coffee honors. Coffee, prewar, was 4% of world production. The former 20% of the world's tea export figure has been much curtailed because of the reluctance of foreign reinvestment. The Pengalongan area above Bandung in Java is ideal tea country—high altitude with warm days and cold nights. Cocoa is also raised in this district but plant diseases in the post-war period have cut production in half. Sugar dominated Java's economy between the world wars when 15% of the world's cane output was produced. 11,000 tons of cloves, approximately 90% of the world's production, is used yearly by Indonesians.

The cinchona products (for quinine) have fallen from 90% of world production to one-tenth of that amount owing to the development of substitutes, the wider use of DDT, and the increased production of quinine on the Congo. Kapok, sisal, Java jute, black and white peppers, and cinnamon, have also been important products, but labor difficulties have now reduced both output and profits.

Leather-making and ceramics are promising new industries, but this fact confronts the enterpriser: on the same machine, a Dutch worker turns out 2,600 saucers per

day to the Indonesian's 150 saucers. No doubt diet and living conditions have something to do with the difference, but so also has the more delicate matter of being geared to the machine age, not to mention the still more subtle Indonesian question constantly thrown at the foreign entrepreneur as to *why* anyone should work that hard and fast.

However, it is quite apparent, too, to see why Indonesians look askance at every foreign investment and want a finger in every financial pie. Pre-war, half the general import trade was in the hands of four Dutch houses; 4/5 of the technical imports were handled by five firms; 3/5 of the medical and pharmaceutical supplies by two firms; most of the motor vehicles by three firms. Not much was left for Indonesians. Since the transfer of sovereignty, the trend has been reversed and import trade has been nudged in the direction of Indonesians to whom special privileges are granted in the form of reserved commodities which include the more readily marketable consumer goods.

In any long-time appraisal economically, the present deficit budget and low standard of living need to be balanced against the country's richly stored earth. Indonesia's natural potential is tremendous, but the lack of its development stems directly from the fact that there is a lack of developers among the Indonesians, generally.

Specifically, certain Indonesians have shown signs of initiative as they have tried to bear their burdens on their own backs. Beginning with the small resources left them after the war, they have put something of a foundation under their food economy. At present there are close to 8,000 cooperative organizations. Java leads with a total membership of two million and registered savings of \$60,000,000.

All types of cooperatives are on the increase. Behind each one is an educational program; behind each campaign, individuals who have experienced the value of participation. But the very form of this cooperative movement, especially of its training pro-

gram both for leaders and for local groups, opens it to Communist infiltration. And Communists infiltrate. They even advance to positions of leadership. However, perhaps the biggest contribution of the cooperative movement is not increasing the food supply, nor stabilizing the economy, nor even training leadership, but in teaching the people how to work together toward democratic ends. For ordinary people to look right at the fact that they still lack sufficient food, clothes, and homes, that national health is low, that travel is difficult and insecurity widespread, and not blame the government, but to realize that *they* are the government with the future in *their* hands, is something of an achievement. The movement still lacks a certain cohesion but the much discussed creation of an All Indonesian Cooperative will strengthen it. Given time—and not too much is left—there is also a chance that Indonesians with their grass-roots village democracy and a tightly knit cooperative movement may out-cooperate Sweden, and then the Indonesians might also eat like the Swedes, too.

As important as developing the untapped resources is the task of improvement of communications, the movement of food and other necessities—as important as investment of capital or the cooperation of labor.

The government has had difficulty reorganizing railroads since the war. A passenger seldom knows, when he boards a train, whether he will reach his destination safely or be held up enroute by bandits; and the same uncertainty conditions the movement of freight. Like every other enterprise, the railroads have their difficulties: heavy equipment bought abroad has to be paid with dollar equivalents; personnel has to be trained from scratch; freight and travel costs have to be kept within the wage span of the public; trucking and shipping competition must be reckoned with.

Shipbuilding has brought improvements to the excellent harbor cities in Java, Sumatra, and Celebes. However, much pilferage and waste of storage space on the docks

aggravate an improving situation.

The British a century ago began to build roads where only worn tracks existed which the rainy season would transform into bogs. The Great Post Road running the length of Java was constructed then. Once off this fine road, built by forced labor with terrific casualties, the back-country conditions, where no roads stand today, are mute evidence of Dutch reluctance. Prewar, there were about 43,000 miles of road good enough for motorized traffic, some 16,000 miles of it in Java with about one-third asphalted. Sumatra came second; then a big drop to Borneo, Celebes, and Bali. There was a total of 22 miles in the Moluccas and ten miles in Timor.

Under the Japanese, road maintenance was poor. Asphalt disappeared from the market and wore off the roads. After the war the Dutch made some repairs in their

occupied areas. The Indonesians had no equipment then, and have little now; when obtained, it was quite useless without trained operators. With FOA, UN, Colombo Plan help, the government's Five-Year Plan for 2,500 miles of new roads may be getting under way. Cost is the reason why some five-year plans require ten years to mature, even here.

Postal service, telegraph, cable, radio, and telephone service are all government owned, but from the consumers' point of view they all appear to operate with average efficiency, except the telephone service. The entire archipelago has approximately the same number of telephones as does a typical American city of 100,000 population. Improvements are being made; for example automatic phones have been installed in the capital city.

(To be continued)

Senior Correlation Project

CONSTANCE F. STECHER and EULA HUTCHINS

Braintree High School, Braintree, Massachusetts

The Braintree High School Program of Studies offers two courses open to college-bound seniors, one in the appreciation of World Literature, and the second in International Relations. Since both courses are open to the same group of pupils, a large percentage of those eligible take both subjects; therefore, the courses are closely related in requirements, objectives, and teaching techniques. In each case the course is taught by the department head. Miss Constance F. Stecher is Head of the English Department, and Miss Eula Hutchins, Head of the Department of Social Studies.

Every effort is made throughout the year to correlate the work of both classes. The value of any such attempt at correlation seems to vary directly in proportion to its

naturalness, its intensity, its range, and the breadth and soundness of a teacher's culture. It is self-evident that the more numerous the connections established between subjects the better, and also that the greater the number of subjects connected, the more the correlation will contribute to a perception of the general pattern and significance of life. The techniques are taught in the English classes; the practice is experienced in the social studies. Much has been written lately about the gifted pupil and the failure of the public schools to give him adequate attention; here in this correlation experiment this very situation is being covered.

Very early in September the burden of the work is on the English teacher to instruct her class in the fundamentals of use of the

library, gathering and editing source material, outlining, summary, footnotes, notetaking, bibliography, and the general mechanics of a term or research paper. Along with these specific units of instruction must be work in reading, literature, spelling, vocabulary, and testing.

Then, too, the English teacher must provide intensive instruction in the oral presentation of research material before the class so that these same pupils may be capable of handling effectively the material selected for reporting on current topics in International Relations as well as on outside reading reports in literature. The pupil must be taught to express himself in an exact and effective style on paper for his English work, while he must be able to master "talkable English" for his oral work in the social studies class; he must be capable of getting his point across in the most effective way possible. The right word in the right place is his weapon for effective written English; the use of maps, diagrams, statistics, and concrete illustrations are his props for effective oral presentation. Above all, his material must be in "talkable" and understandable language.

English instruction in "reading for meaning" is most important at this point. For this practice in reading comprehension, the English instructor uses long articles from the current issues of the better newspapers, magazines, and books for purposes of topic sentence analysis, outlining, and summaries. The topic outline is used extensively to train the pupil to look for and retain the more important fact elements. For practice in reading and outlining skills, notebook outlines are required of all textbook background material on the various units or countries studied in World Literature. Vocabulary is strongly stressed in these various types of reading media.

Notetaking in topic form is stressed. Practice in taking notes is afforded in the requirement that pupils take notes on oral reports in both classes, in summary notes al-

lowed a pupil giving an oral topic, and in outside reading for report purposes.

Compilation of the bibliography is another topic stressed because of the necessity for knowing how to make a working bibliography, how to use it, what to include in a final bibliography, and how to arrange it.

Style in writing is thoroughly discussed. Illustrations are given to the class showing the various style methods authors use in writing. Practice exercises in current materials are used so that the pupil may experience the meaning of evaluating style trends, style differences, and style qualities of enduring value. Consistency in style is a topic of much discussion.

Effective sentence structure is examined at great length in an effort to impress upon pupils the necessity for strong, effective sentences at the beginning and end of their work as well as in individual paragraph development.

Vocabulary work is intensive. Pupils are required to use exact words to express their thoughts; they are required to make use of a book of synonyms and antonyms. It is recommended that each senior own a copy of a good, up-to-date collegiate dictionary, a good handbook, and a Roget *Dictionary of Synonyms and Antonyms*. A small pamphlet entitled *Preparing the Research Paper* is also strongly recommended.

After this intensive preliminary work of approximately two months, pupils in both courses are ready to cover intelligently the work required for the remainder of the year.

The basis of the correlation evaluation in each course comes toward the end of the year in the form of a required senior thesis of 5000 words (in place of a final examination) in English. Pupils use for their area of choice the country which they chose for private investigation in International Relations at the beginning of the year. Upon submission of the country chosen the English instructor, in cooperation with the teacher of social studies, creates a definite problem for the pupil to investigate so that no two pupils ever work on the same problem

even though they may have chosen the same country. Pupils have been collecting all kinds of source material since early fall for use in current oral and written reports for social studies; so all this material is available as a starter for the English thesis. From there pupils are on their own to make use of their previous instruction in the preparation of a working bibliography. After that they do their reading, taking notes on cards according to instruction. Then they are shown how to sort these cards for the purpose of making an outline from them. Next comes the writing of the paper from the notes with the correct compilation of the necessary footnotes. Last is the preparation of the final bibliography from sources actually used in the writing of the paper. The title page, properly set up, is attached and the rough draft of the project is completed.

In the process of revision, according to a set of mimeographed questions as a guide, students are required to read aloud their theses at least twice, once to themselves and once to someone else. All corrections, changes, and insertions are required to be made on the original draft, which must be passed in at the same time as the final copy of the thesis, along with the notecards in the order used in the writing of the paper. In this manner the instructor is able to visualize exactly the method and understanding with which the pupil carried through his project of writing a term paper. Thus the correlation of the two subjects has a time saving element in the ever present question of homework.

After the thesis is submitted each pupil is asked, in the form of a ten to fifteen minute talk, to review for the class his individual methods, techniques, and sources, and the problems which he encountered in his work. In this way there is a great deal of discussion, as a result of which some excellent ideas and advice are offered.

The English teacher is interested in reading the thesis as a final review of content and the effectiveness and accuracy of presentation by means of written composition;

the social studies teacher is interested in historical analysis. The thesis tests exactly the skills required by the College Entrance Examinations; each pupil has a concrete illustration of how competent he is to read, to think, and to express himself effectively.

The correlative project is a transition course, from high school to college work. All instruction is individual on the basis of ability; thus the gifted pupil has his chance to progress as rapidly as he desires. Each pupil is on his own; there is no "spoon feeding." The project actually saves the pupil's time, in this day of the hue and cry of too much homework, because the basic material used for the writing and reading is the same in both courses. The idea was put into operation in B.H.S. four years ago as a result of reports from many of the former graduates then in college who stated their problems and their needs in the matter of the difficult transition from work at the secondary level to that of college grade. This correlation seems to give the required "college approach" to study, content, and method. The technique is a success based on the enthusiastic reports from former pupils who come back each year to thank the instructors for their success in college work. At present the senior level is the only one at which correlation is in operation; however, plans are under way to extend this same planning next year to the junior college level in American history and English literature in the field of the European background common to both.

The principal drawback is a decided lack of source material available in both history and world literature. The high school library has added some material especially for the plan in the last two or three years. The Thayer Public Library is most helpful in supplying what outside and supplementary material they have available. But even at that the dearth of good current as well as background material does hinder the operation somewhat. Little by little the classroom libraries are being enlarged but there, too, much more is needed.

The History Clinic: A Way to Broaden The World Civilization Course

GEORGE SINKLER

Prairie View Agricultural and Mechanical College, Prairie View, Texas

Even on the college Freshman level, one must concur with the late Henry Johnson, whom I consider Dean of the philosophy of teaching history, that ". . . the fundamental condition of making history effective in the classroom is to invest the past with an air of reality."¹ One could go even further and say that a major problem, and indeed a tremendous challenge in the teaching of any history course is that, as Johnson says, of "making the past real." Even though this might be commonplace, it is no less important in this connection to reaffirm the fact that ". . . if teachers provide diversified learning experiences to meet the differing needs of their pupils, major dividends in student interest and learning will result."² It may be suggested further that "every student, over a period of time needs variety in his learning experiences."³ It also seems fairly certain that high school and even first year college students need to master certain basic social studies skills if they are to be successful academically, and equally important, if they are to obtain what Quillen and Hanna so aptly call "social competence."⁴ If there be any truth in the above assumptions then you may want to read about my experiences with the History Clinic as conducted for one year with college Freshmen.

The Purpose of the History Clinic

The purpose of the History Clinic is three-fold: to broaden the cultural horizons of the students; to provide additional opportunities beyond the classroom for student self-expression and participation; and to provide assistance in the mastering of social studies skills and any other phase of the course in which the student might encounter difficulty.

The above purposes were designed to

mitigate some of the problems involved in the administration and teaching of the college freshman survey course in *World Civilization*. If one teaches as does this instructor, from the historical approach, music, art, philosophy and literature, they must of necessity (due to factors of time, and in many cases the limitations of the teacher in breadth of preparation) be swiftly sketched in the survey. The History Clinic sought to remedy this in part by giving the students a longer look at these very important aspects of his social heritage. It was the intention of the Clinic to bring in from time to time, in a sequence following the general outline of the course, certain qualified people to treat subjects of cultural interest, many of which were sufficiently broad in scope to appeal to the entire student body.

The survey course, of necessity, is limited to lectures and some discussion. Three fifty-minute periods per week offer time for little else. The Clinic seeks to alleviate this condition, in part, by giving the students opportunities to carry on activities which involve both individual and group participation.

The Clinic brings together once a week for one and one-half hours, all sections (in this case five) of the survey course. This provides an excellent opportunity to take up, when necessary, any instructional problems common to all the students. Here is the time to give assistance in the mastering of the common social studies skills such as note-taking, map-reading, how to study, and the proper use of the text and workbooks.⁵

The History Clinic in Operation

The Clinic is not compulsory, though the students are strongly urged to attend and we go through the motions of taking attend-

ance. On the first meeting of the History Clinic last fall, ninety bright-eyed young college Freshmen faced me. After they were greeted and had had the purposes of the Clinic explained, we then organized. The group elected a president, three secretaries, a refreshment program and a roll checking committee. These elected members became the executive committee of the Clinic, whose job it was to assist the instructor in the administration of the Clinic. They met once a

week with the instructor to plan the Clinics, sometimes at least two or three weeks ahead. Members of the Department of History, of necessity, had worked out during the summer a skeletal outline of about fourteen Clinics which included anticipated topics to be discussed (these were worked out from the broad outline of the civilization course), anticipated activities, special report topics, and anticipated resources from which to draw. See Chart I.

CHART I
The Civilization Clinic*

CLINIC I	THE REFORMATION (Students)	(JANUARY 30)
<i>Topics</i>	<i>Activities</i>	<i>Resources</i>
1. Did the Reformation contribute to Universal Education and Democracy?	1. Music appreciation record 2. Skill: How to locate references 3. Current events Report 4. "Sixty-six" discussion	1. Methods class 2. Chapel Dean 3. Workbook: p. 190 4. Reading
CLINIC II	THE REFORMATION	(FEBRUARY 6)
<i>Topics</i>	<i>Activities</i>	<i>Resources</i>
1. The 95 Theses 2. The Lollard Movement 3. Luther and Calvin 4. <i>Institutes of the Christian Religion</i> 5. Protestantism and Religion 6. Protestantism and Capitalism	1. What are the rules and regulations of your own church (all sections) 2. Report on Medieval and Modern Relics 3. What has been the effect of Protestantism on church art and liturgy?	1. History Department 2. Chapel Dean 3. Catholic or Episcopal priest
CLINIC III	EIGHTEENTH CENTURY PHILOSOPHY (Students)	(FEBRUARY 13)
<i>Topics</i>	<i>Activities</i>	<i>Resources</i>
1. "Almost everything that makes the modern world different from earlier centuries is attributed to science." (Is this true?)	1. Music appreciation 2. Current Events Report 3. How to understand social studies reading 4. "Sixty-six" discussion	1. Methods class 2. Workbook: p. 22 3. F. 371-3-L479 (Film, <i>Learning to Study</i>)
CLINIC IV	EIGHTEENTH CENTURY PHILOSOPHY	(FEBRUARY 20)
<i>Topics</i>	<i>Activities</i>	<i>Resources</i>
1. How does one Know? 2. What is the relationship between science and philosophy? 3. Are religion and reason compatible? 4. Effect of science on the literature of the period 5. Descartes, Locke, Kant, Francis Bacon, Voltaire, Rousseau	1. What did Kant, Voltaire, Francis Bacon, Locke, Descartes, Hume and Berkley believe? 2. What did Rousseau contribute to 18th century thought? 3. What improvements were made in the field of medicine in the 18th century?	1. Philosophers from the two nearby Universities

* This Chart is a sample of second semester Clinics.

There was always a list of topics under the main subject from which the executive committee could choose what they thought the students would like to discuss or have discussed. Also there were three or four kinds of activities and special report topics listed from which students could choose. There was always the problem and the job of the executive committee, with my help, of contacting resource people, getting equipment, and making posters for the Clinic.

Members of the executive committee, and many students in the various sections who were called upon freely at the discretion of the executive committee, received valuable social training in writing letters, in introducing speakers, and in contacting and engaging faculty members (on whom we drew heavily, since the school is in an isolated rural area) for service in the Clinic. After having sat in on a few of the executive committee meetings, I found that the members, especially the president, could profit from some instruction in parliamentary procedure. I found it very helpful at this point to hand the president a copy of Long and Halter's *Social Studies Skills*,⁶ which had a simple section on how to conduct a meeting, suitable for college Freshmen who seemingly had had no training at all. Minutes were kept of the Clinics and the executive meetings, and were a valuable historical record.

Music was another feature of the Clinic. The Music Department had a rare collection of records going as far back as the Middle Ages. Every time we reached a place in the Clinic or the class outline where a certain piece of music would be appropriate, the instructor brought the record player and a few records and played parts of them for the students. A few Medieval Latin Masses were well received. It is thought that some of the students heard Mozart and Bach for the first time in the Clinic.

This instructor also conducts a special Methods class in the teaching of history and other social studies, and used the junior and seniors in this advanced course to help with

the skill-building part of the Clinic. Going on the assumption that there might be some resemblance between college freshmen and high school seniors, we felt that in this way the Methods students would get a little taste of working with adolescents before their actual student teaching. The Methods students assisted the freshmen in their work-book problems, conducted a session on map-reading, and showed training films on how to take notes, how to write, and how to study. These were some of the best sessions. The Methods students in these instances were responsible for going to the Library, checking out the films, and arranging for the pre-viewing, showing, and follow-up.

What Was Done Best

The second Clinic was an excellent one. There were almost two hundred people in the Library Auditorium, and every seat was taken. This Clinic had been advertised well and many students came who were not enrolled in the Civilization course. A anthropologist from the Museum of Natural History in a nearby metropolis (forty miles away), spoke on the "Asiatic Origin of the American Indian," and showed slides of and commented on "prehistoric man." He also brought with him some paleolithic artifacts of the American Indian in the southwest. During this session, as in all subsequent ones, time was allotted for student questions. Usually we could determine the effectiveness of the speaker's presentation by the quality and quantity of the questions.

A nearby University contributed a young Chinese student from Hong Kong, China, and a female Indian student (she was a Parsi, a modern worshipper of the ancient Zoroaster) from Bombay, India, to talk about Oriental culture. The Professor of Military Science and Tactics of our R.O.T.C. Unit gave new insight into the "Roman Army." A member of the English Department thrilled the students with a narrative on the "Greek Theatre and Drama," including some of Aristotle's *Poetics*. An Episcopal priest discussed the "Apostles of the Early Christian Church and their Gospels." A

philosopher from a nearby University, who had travelled in the Near and Far East, discussed, presented slides, and played records on the general subject of "Mohammed and the Arabs." A Catholic priest presented slides and explanations of the supposedly mysterious Mass and gave us an insight on what the Catholic Church believed, and its Medieval basis.

When we reached our Clinic on the Protestant Reformation, this instructor, with the help of a member of the Department of Music, gave a short talk on the "Rise of Hymnology with the Protestant Reformation." Printed copies of some hymns written during the Reformation period were given to the students. Five members of the Music Department gave a well received "Musical Tour of the 18th, 19th, and 20th Centuries," including piano demonstrations and the nomenclature of the symphony orchestra instruments. The Art Department gave a lecture and slide demonstration on "Nineteenth Century Art Appreciation." An army major, a historian, a priest, and a sociologist gave a stirring panel on "Total War as a Twentieth Century Phenomenon." The students themselves held good debates and discussions on "Freedom and Responsibility," "The Declaration of Independence," "Can the Masses Rule Society?", and the validity of "The Economic Determination of History."

The Clinic as the Students Saw it

At the end of the two semesters, the students were given a blank half sheet of paper with the admonition that they were simply to record, unsigned, their likes and dislikes about the Clinics. At the end of the first semester the students verbally recorded two criticisms of the Clinic which we thought were valid and took steps during the second semester to correct. The students held that, in spite of our efforts, there was not enough real student participation in the Clinic. They claimed that they were doing too much sitting and listening. During the second semester every other week was given over solely to the students who prepared, discussed, and debated Clinic topics. This

boosted the morale of the Clinic tremendously, and did much to convince this instructor that nothing succeeds like direct student participation — even though the quality of the presentations will vary according to the abilities of the several students.

The students also suggested that one written special report per week was a little too much, considering the weekly Clinic and the workbook exercises. This instructor was not entirely convinced as to the validity of this criticism but bowed to the demand and reduced the reports to one every other week. This increased our popularity with the students and in some cases, the quality of the report.

Charts II and III will help to reveal what the Students said about the Clinic experiences. If the following reservations are held in mind, the Charts are valid, at least for suggestive purposes. These tabulations represent summaries of the responses on the half sheets of paper upon which students were asked to record, unsigned, their likes and dislikes about the Clinic in their own words. For the first semester, 71 students reported out of a possible 90 students. For the second semester, 48 out of a possible 68 students reported. In many instances a student had more than one dislike, which meant that there were more responses than students responding.

The responses are the significant items sought after here, and the figures appearing on the Charts represent the number of times the responses appeared and the percentage. Many of the students recorded only their likes or dislikes. These evaluations do represent the feelings of those who came to the Clinics. Let it be said also that the Civilization course is a two-semester offering and with few exceptions the same people were in the course both semesters thus making the comparison of the two semesters valid. During the first semester this instructor taught four out of five sections and during the second semester he taught all three sections of the course.

During the first semester, forty responses

CHART II
First Semester*

What They Liked	No. of Resp.	Per Cent	What They Disliked	No. of Resp.	Per Cent
1. Interesting, educational, informative, enlightening	40	56.3	1. It was held too long	10	14
2. Helped in understanding classwork	16	22.5	2. It was held too often	9	12.6
3. Interesting, enjoyable speakers	8	11.1	3. The hour was unsatisfactory	8	11.1
4. Discussions and question periods	7	9.8	4. Speakers not well prepared	7	9.8
5. Different opinions and ideas of speakers	3	4.2	5. Too many special reports	7	9.8
6. Out of town speakers	3	4.2	6. It was boring	6	8.5
7. Comparing ideas	2	2.8	7. Speakers spoke too long	2	2.8
8. The slides	2	2.8	8. It was a waste of time	2	2.8
9. Helped with workbook	2	2.8	9. Too much noise	2	2.8
10. I met different faculty members	2	2.8	10. Did not start on time	1	1.4
11. Acquainted me with Library	2	2.8	11. Held on an unsatisfactory day	1	1.4
12. The day and hour	1	1.4	12. It was compulsory	1	1.4
13. Correlation of speakers and special report topic	1	1.4	13. Not enough movies	1	1.4
			14. Too many lectures	1	1.4
			15. Not enough student expression	1	1.4

* Seventy-one students out of 90 reporting.

CHART III
Second Semester*

What They Liked	No. of Resp.	Per Cent	What They Disliked	No. of Resp.	Per Cent
1. Interesting, educational, informative, enlightening	16	33.3	1. It was held too long	9	18.7
2. It was better this semester than last	14	29.1	2. It was held too often	5	14.1
a. Because of more student participation	11	22.9	3. The hours were unsatisfactory	4	8.3
b. Because of less special reports	6	12.5	4. It was boring	4	8.3
c. Because of more time for special reports	3	6.2	5. Boring speakers	3	6.2
d. Because it was more interesting	1	2.8	6. Speakers not prepared	2	4.1
3. Interesting, enjoyable speakers	6	12.5	7. Special reports	2	4.1
4. Helpful in classwork	3	6.2	8. A waste of time	1	2.8
5. Interesting discussions	2	4.1	9. Held on the wrong day	1	2.8
6. Interesting	3	6.2	10. Too many reports	1	2.8
7. They were helpful	2	4.1	11. Difficult reports	1	2.8
8. Guest speakers	2	4.1			
9. Panel discussions	1	2.8			
10. Speakers were better prepared	1	2.8			
11. Faculty speakers	1	2.8			
12. Using the Library	1	2.8			

* Forty-eight students out of 65 reporting.

or 56.3 percent revealed that the clinics were interesting, educational, informational, and enlightening, while only two responses or 2.8 percent expressed the belief that they were a "waste of time." Sixteen responses or 22.5 percent thought that the Clinic activities helped in the better understanding of classwork, including lectures, text and work-book. The speakers were interesting and enjoyable, according to eight responses or 11.1 percent. Interesting discussions and question periods appeared seven times representing 9.8 percent of the responses. Three responses or 4.2 percent were in favor of the different opinions and ideas of the various speakers.

It is obvious that there were more favorable responses about the Clinics the first semester than there were unfavorable ones. It is interesting to note also that the significant dislikes were not directed against the Clinic as such but against certain aspects of its administration. Ten of the responses or 14 percent said that the Clinics were held too long (they were held for one and one-half hours). Nine responses or 12 percent said that the Clinics were held too often (they were held once per week). Eight responses or 11.1 percent said that the hour was unsatisfactory (they were held at 6:30 p.m.). Seven responses or 9.8 percent thought that the speakers were not well prepared. Six responses or 8 percent thought that the Clinics were boring.

The significant fact about the second semester is that fourteen responses or 29 percent thought that the Clinics were better the second semester than the first and gave as the reason the fact that there were fewer special reports to hand in and more student participation. This represents, it is thought, progress in the administration of the Clinic and shows the importance of paying attention to valid student criticism. Also significant perhaps is the fact that two minority criticisms remained constant for the two semesters. These two responses said that the Clinics were held too often and too long and

represented about 15 percent of the responses.

In Retrospect

It was felt by this instructor that most of the emphasis this year was placed on the promotion of a broader cultural background for the student (which was sorely needed), to the neglect of the remedial side. Attempts will be made in the future to restore the balance. Having provided during the second semester for fewer special reports and more student participation, it was felt that the majority of the students were favorable to the idea of the History Clinic. It is also felt that the Clinic did enhance the Civilization course with a wider variety of experiences, ideas, opinions, and understanding than would have been possible in the traditional fifty-minute class period three times a week. It may be that one and one-half hours is too long a period of time to hold college Freshmen unless the program can be made more appealing and more active. It may be also that 6:30 p.m. is too early in the evening to hold the Clinic as it might be interfering with daylight outdoor activities.

Someone once said that if one were to utilize community resources he could have fifty teachers to a classroom. This year almost forty people were used to assist in the teaching of the Civilization course, through the utilization of faculty members and nearby community people. One teacher, no matter how brilliant, could not have equalled, it seems to me, the resources of forty people. The History Clinic represents then a way to give students the benefit of the entire faculty, many of whom they would not have a chance to meet otherwise. This is especially true in schools where art, music, and philosophy are not required courses for all students.

Teaching skills to many students at once prevents one from having to teach the same skill over and over again individually. Since time is always a limiting, problematic factor the Clinic idea certainly helps to compensate for some of the things which the instructor is not able to do during the regular class

period. It is also felt by this instructor that some form or variation of the Clinic idea might bring added variety and enrichment to junior college and high school social studies courses.

The Clinic can, should, and will be improved. It is hoped that in the future a series of movies, slides, filmstrips, and recordings can be coordinated with the Clinic to increase interest and understanding. The possibilities for a Clinic in American History and other social studies courses seem myriad. It is hoped that this little attempt to build social studies skills, to enrich and broaden the cultural horizons of the civilization course, and make the past real will stimulate more thought on the perennial problem of finding better ways to lift history and social studies

from the traditional "valley of dry bones," in which they sometimes founder.

¹ Johnson, Henry. *Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools*, (Revised edition) New York: The Macmillan Company 1940. p. 163.

² West, Edith, and McClure, Dorothy. "Individual and Group Activities Related to World History," *Improving the Teaching of World History*, Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 20th Yearbook, 1949. p. 117.

³ Ibid., p. 118.

⁴ Moffatt, Maurice P. *Social Studies Instruction*, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1954. p. 173. Quillen, I. James, and Hanna, Lavone A., *Education For Social Competence*, New York: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1948. p. 46. Cartwright William H., "Needs of Young Adults as Citizens in a Democratic Society," *Social Studies in the College*, Washington, D. C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, Curriculum Series 8, 1953. p. 3.

⁵ Department of History. *Course Outline Booklet: First Semester*, 1955-1956, Prairie View A & M College, Prairie View, Texas.

⁶ Long, F. E., and Halter, H., *Social Studies Skills*, New York: Inor Publishing Company, 1954.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Teaching With Television as the Major Resource

The issue concerning the use of television in education is no longer whether television is an effective educational tool or medium but how, when, and where television can best be utilized in the educational process.

Broad generalizations are rather common in those areas of human endeavor where it is difficult to make exact predictions based on scientific experimentation. Unfortunately, education falls into this category. One generalization made by those fearful of television is that it will displace the classroom teacher. An opposite generalization, made by proponents of the new medium, is that it will never replace the classroom teacher. Both generalizations seem to assume that it would be bad to displace the classroom

teacher, and this also is an unsubstantiated generalization.

Events have a way of moving along irrespective of what people think or say about them. We believe that no one is in a position to generalize about television and its effect on the displacement of future classroom teachers. Moreover, no one is in a position to generalize on the proposition that if there were displacement of classroom teachers by greater use of television, it would be either advantageous or disadvantageous. Of course, people can express their views on the matter based on their own personal thinking on the subject, but if that is done, then one can just as well express the view that the displacement of *some* teachers might be good. In the long run it would seem — and that also is an unsubstantiated generalization — that what the greater use

of television in education might do is to supplant and to supplement some of the present-day functions or duties of teachers; and this, again, might be good or bad.

One of the difficulties encountered in the introduction of any new way of doing things is that it disturbs the peace of mind, the security, of those people who have become accustomed to the old ways of doing things. It is understandable, therefore, that there should be some apprehension among certain people about the use of television in education.

In the past several years a variety of experiments in the use of television for educational purposes has been going on throughout the country. The Ford Foundation, through its subsidiary, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, has also become interested in the problem. We had the occasion to sit in on a meeting in which Dr. Alexander Stoddard, formerly Superintendent of Schools of Philadelphia and later of Los Angeles, and now working with the Fund for Advancement of Education, presented the outlines of a proposed educational experiment involving the use of television.

Nature of the Experiment

Dr. Stoddard prefaced the main subject of his presentation by discussing two related aspects of the problem: first, the present shortage of teachers and the increasing prospects of a continuously greater shortage of teachers; second, that, potentially television used as an educational medium can reach increasingly larger numbers of people. However, the basic question with respect to television and education is whether it can do as good, better, or worse a job of teaching large numbers of people than can a teacher handling the usual smaller size classroom. Dr. Stoddard felt that there are really no answers to those questions now, nor will there be unless teaching by television is actually tried out.

At present, and for the past several years, television has been used, for the most part,

to supplement or "to enrich" regular teaching. There are a great many difficulties (principally money and organizational problems) which have stood in the way of a greater use of television in education. Moreover, what role television should assume in education hasn't yet been determined. Dr. Stoddard felt it will be easier to secure financial support for the use of television in schools when "we know how to use it." The next few years, consequently must continue to be experimental years designed to discover the best potential use of the medium.

A word about the psychological nature of television in relation to the learning process is important at this point. Learning, as we know, can take place only when stimuli enter the nervous system by way of one or more of the sense receptors. The more sense receptors that are involved in a learning experience, as hearing and seeing instead of just hearing or seeing the greater the possibility that learning will be more lasting. Moreover, the emotional effect that accompanies a learning experience, particularly if it is pleasant, increases the effectiveness of learning. Television by its very nature intensifies the psychological factors related to learning. It makes possible both seeing and hearing of the same stimulus. It can dramatize qualities which may intensify the learning process. It can through proper camera utilization, bring into focal view words, sentences, ideas, pictures that are not possible in ordinary classroom teaching.

Nature of the Experiment

The proposed nature of the teaching by television experiment involves ten of the twenty-five large city school systems. Each participating school will select three junior high schools, three senior high schools, and three elementary schools. The three schools in each level will work as a unit in planning the television teaching programs. From time to time the ten city school systems will have an opportunity to exchange information. The three participating schools in each level must agree as to what subject area will be taught

— history, science, English, mathematics, or any subdivision of these subjects.

The purpose of the experiment is to discover whether learning will be more, less, or equally as effective when one person teaches a class of three hundred or more students, with the aid of television, as compared with current practices of one teacher in charge of a class of thirty to forty students. The proposed classroom set-up, under the experiment, is as follows:

1. One teacher, selected on the basis of his ability and interest, is to be in charge of not less than three hundred students.
2. Each teacher-in-charge is to be assigned another teacher, as an assistant, preferably a younger teacher, and one secretary.
3. It is recommended that the total duties assigned to the teacher-in-charge would be either two classes of three hundred students each, or one class of three hundred students plus one or two regular classes.
4. Space must be available to enable the three hundred or more students to meet as a class in one room, one period each school day. Seating must be arranged to permit comfortable viewing (about fifty students per one television set). The selection of a room suitable acoustically and large enough to house three hundred or more students is one of the current stumbling blocks that many schools face. The construction of school buildings in the future may well give serious thought to this matter.

The proposed nature of the teaching-learning situation is as follows:

1. Each day's television program would be thirty minutes in length.
2. The planning of the program would be done by the teachers of the participating schools in collaboration with the staff of the local educational television station. This phase of the planning is, naturally, a major part of the experiment. The actual contents of the daily

television teaching lessons might embrace the use of films, filmstrips, slides, demonstration lectures, discussions — or any technique deemed effective. The skill and resourcefulness of the teachers and the television staff would be a deciding factor. This, again, is one of the areas where the experiment should provide answers to important questions.

3. Provision for rostering the three hundred or more students in the experiment for an additional period — to meet in smaller groups with the teacher or his assistant once a week for follow-up discussions.

The experiment of teaching by television is to be conducted for a minimum period of one year, and possibly for three years.

* * * * *

A review of the role of television in education was written up in the *New York Times Magazine* section, June 2, 1957, by Dr. Charles A. Siepmann of New York University. The author is of the opinion that television can not only help solve our school crisis, but can raise the level of education. He cites Pittsburgh's experiment as an example of what can be done. The work with television in that city follows somewhat the outline of the proposed experiment described above.

This coming school year will see the start of many more ventures with teaching by television.

The pros and cons of teaching by television received attention at the one hundred anniversary meeting of the NEA held last July in Philadelphia. The delegates and speakers aired both the fears and praises associated with the issue. Bob Williams, radio and television critic, writing on the NEA discussion expressed the view of many proponents of teaching by television.

"To reject it (television) untried as an unwelcome monster . . . is to run away from inevitability. The proof isn't down in black and white as yet, but it will be.

"Television . . . must and will remain a

tool of teaching, rather than its master. As such it's the educator's task to find out what it can and cannot be used for."

Writing for himself, Mr. Williams stated: "This fear (that television will take the place of the classroom teacher) is entirely unfounded . . . We've never encountered a pro-television educator who even suggested that shadows on a screen would eventually replace the flesh-and-blood teacher who contributes so much in the shaping of youngsters' minds."

William M. Brisk, superintendent of schools of Maryland County where there has been extensive experimentation with television, summarized the pro-television views as follows:

"If nothing else, television has resulted in a re-analysis of our educational processes. It has taught us that there is more than one way—sometimes a better way of approaching teaching practices at both the television and classroom levels."

* * * * *

Out-of-School Television Programs For Teachers

For their own cultural and recreational enjoyment teachers may look forward to the following television programs in the fall and winter (reported by Jack Gould in the *New York Times*, Sunday, July 21, 1957):

1. *Hallmark Hall of Fame*— dramatizations

"Green Pastures"
"Wonderful Town"
"Hans Brinker"
"Dial M for Murder"

2. *Omnibus*—scheduled for alternate Sunday days in the afternoon. One full Metropolitan Opera presentation is a possibility.

3. *Wisdom Series*—personalities expected to appear:

Igor Stravinsky, Picasso, Ruth St. Denis, Ted Shawn, Premier David Ben Gurion (discussing Greek literature).

4. For teachers who are children at heart or who have young children: Shirley Temple will be hostess to a series of fairy tale presentations: "Pinocchio," "Pied Piper," and others.
5. N.B.C. Opera presentations: "Rigoletto," "Die Meistersinger," "Dialogues of the Carmelites."
6. News Programs: (under consideration) Depth study of Washington personalities and international issues.

Columbia Broadcasting System . . .

1. A major Sunday series entitled "The Seven Lively Arts"—"dealing with the realm of entertainment in many different ways."

2. Monthly presentations sponsored by Dupont
"Crescendo"—a musical with Rex Harrison and Ethel Merman.
"The Prince and The Pauper."
"Junior Miss"—musical version.
"Aladdin."

3. Live dramatizations to be continued:
United States Steel—Theater Guild Hour

*Armstrong Circle Theater
Playhouse 90*

4. Other programs of interest
Ed Murrow's "See It Now"
"The Big Record"—A musical program not limited to best-selling songs of the hour but ranging the entire field, will make its debut . . ."
"Conquest"—science programs.
"The Twentieth Century"—A documentary series, which will cover highlights of this century and also look into the future, will lead off with a study of Winston Churchill on October 20th.
Far-away Places—"a series of seven hour-long films with Lowell Thomas."

The American Broadcasting Company

1. Frank Sinatra—A series in which he will "perform as — singer, dramatic artist and host."
2. Patrice Munsel—a musical series.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

New Material

Books Are Vacations — compiled by Lois R. Markey. Lists books of history, adventure, hobbies, poetry, dance, music for the 9-14 years-olds. Horn Book, Inc., 585 Boylston St., Boston 16, Mass. (75 cents).

Using The Tape Recorder — This is an official New York City Board of Education manual on tape recording. It includes not only a clear and concise description of how to operate the recorder, but also lists ways of using tapes in the classroom, PTA work, and school research. Illustrated 40-page booklet at 35 cents. Write the Publications Division, Board of Education, Room 108, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, New York.

Free Catalogs — RCA Victor offers a 128 page catalog listing all its current recordings. Major subject headings include, "Basic Record Library for the Elementary School," "Choral Recordings," "Folk Music and Folk Songs," and "Speech, Literature, and Drama," . . . Educational Services, Radio Corp. of America, Camden, N. J. (Free in single copies).

FILMS

Fur Trappers, Westward. 31 min. color. black and white. Sale. Arthur Barr Productions, 6211 Arroyo Glen, Los Angeles, California.

A complete and realistic film of the early fur trapper in his historical role of explorer and trail blazer for the westward expansion of the U.S.

Aztecs. 10 min. color. black and white. Sale. Coronet Films, Coronet Bldg., Chicago, Ill.

Explores notable ruins, carvings, and murals depicting the pre-Aztec and Aztec civilizations, including a re-enactment at Teotihuacan of a religious ceremony.

Colonial Life in New England. 10 min. color. black and white. Coronet Films.

Costumed re-enactment of life in early Boston.

Colonial Life in the Middle Colonies. Color.

Black & White. 10 min. Sale. Coronet Films.

Post rider travels from Philadelphia to New York, noting people, geographic influences, and other contributions of the pre-Revolutionary period.

Colonial Life in the South. 15 min. Color. Black & White. Sale. Coronet Films.

Similar in treatment to previous item, utilizing here the journey of a surveyor.

Triumph Over Time. 40 min. Color. Sale or Rental. Princeton Film Center, Carter Rd., Princeton, N. J.

A camera record of scientific excavation methods and discoveries projected against a background of a beautiful ancient land (Greece) whose way of life is still cast in the traditions of a remote past.

An Alone Army. 10 min. sale/Rental. Rembrandt Film Library, 35 W. 53 St., New York 20, N. Y.

Depicts the noblest moment in American history, when the ragged Continental Army, alone and cold, stood in combat against superior British forces.

Lafayette — Soldier of Liberty. 16 min. Sale. Black & white, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Wilmette, Ill.

Seen are highlights of life and career, with particular emphasis on service to the U.S. and his friendship with George Washington.

Marco Polo's Travels. 19 min. Black & white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films Inc. Portrays Marco's journey that began in 1271 and continued for 3½ years.

Kipling's India. 20 min. Color. Rental. Teaching Film Custodians Inc., 25 W. 43 St., New York 36, N. Y.

Depicts the people, places, and customs of late 19th Century India as seen by Kim, Kipling's boy hero, in his wanderings with the old Lama along the historic Grand Trunk Road.

FILMSTRIPS

The Natural Environment. 52 frames. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc.

This filmstrip deals with the topography, climate, and natural resources of the four states (Washington, Oregon, Nevada, and California) which combine to make the far western region.

The People and Their History. 53 frames. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc.

A summary of the Far West, from Indians through Spanish, Portuguese, and Russian explorers, with emphasis on present day inhabitants.

The Middle East — An Overview. 44 frames. Black & white. Current Affairs Films.

An excellent pictorial and graphic presentation of European dependency upon the Middle East. The emphasis is on oil and the Suez Canal; some historical background leading up to as well as including the present day situation.

American Pioneer. Set of 9 in color. Sale. Prepared under the auspices of the N. Y. State Historical Association of Cooperstown. Set studies American history from 1790-1840. The following are included:

Conquering the Wilderness

Pioneer Home Life

Travel in Pioneer Days

Household Handicrafts

Pioneer Professions

Pioneer Village

Pioneer Folk Art

Pioneer Artisans

Children at Home and at School

Foundations of Democracy. Set of 7 in color. Sale. Jam Handy Organization, 2821 E. Grand Blvd., Detroit 11, Mich.

Includes the following titles:

Colonists Are Freedom Loving

Colonial Freedoms Are Threatened

Fighting Begins in the North

Independence Is Declared

War in the Middle Colonies and the Northwest

War on the Sea and in the South

Writing the Constitution

America's Old World Backgrounds. Set of 6 in color, each about 45 frames. McGraw Hill Book Co., Text-film Dept., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y.

Includes the following titles:

Dark Ages

Gifts from Ancient Times

Crusades

Life in a Medieval Castle

End of Middle Ages

Our Heritage from Old England

Enrichment Filmstrips. Set of 6 in color. Sale. Format stresses backgrounds of the event, highlights of the event, and significance of the whole American story. Story, sound, and pictures well done. These complement Enrichment Records and Landmark Books:

Paul Revere and the Minute Men

Winter At Valley Forge

Our Independence and the Constitution

Lewis and Clark Expedition

Louisiana Purchase

California Gold Rush

American Leaders. Set of 6 in color, each about 40 frames. Young America Films, 18 E. 41 St., New York 17, N. Y.

Includes the following titles:

Jane Addams

Susan B. Anthony

Benjamin Franklin

Thomas Jefferson

Horace Mann

Roger Williams

Dilemmas of France, 94 fr. Sale. Office of Educ. Activities, N. Y. Times, 229 W. 43 St., New York 36, N. Y.

Takes up the instability in French government, the shifting political alignments, the economic and social problems, the stirrings in the colonial Empire and relentless memories of wars with Germany.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.

Mankind Against the Killers. By James Hemming. New York: Longmans Green and Company, 1956. Pp. xvi, 231. \$3.50.

James Hemming has put together in his book, *Mankind Against the Killers*, an interesting story of man's progress in subduing and overcoming pestilential diseases. The material is presented with the sparkle of adventure that is calculated to make a strong appeal to the enquiring mind of the high school student.

Mr. Hemming sets his stage by showing man's progressive conquests over the elements: heat, cold, land, water and air. This was accomplished in part by his development of control of power produced by wind, water, steam, electricity and finally nuclear energy. He then leads the reader into an awareness of the lag man has experienced in overcoming the scourge of disease organisms. This the author does by giving a sketch of the progress made through discovery in the field of medicine. All of this is refreshingly unencumbered by dull and heavy facts. There are for, example, accounts in narrative form of the work of Leeuwenhoek and Pasteur, and the suffering that "Typhoid Mary" left in her wake.

The appalling condition of a large percentage of the world's population brought on by the vicious cycle of starvation and illness is presented in such a way as to give the thoughtful reader much to consider. With more ill than well people because of malnutrition* some idea of the scope of the problem confronting the World Health Organization can be appreciated. The manner in which the World Health Organization, a unit of the United Nations, has begun to attack this problem is shown in the latter chapters of the book. This staggering, at

the same time fascinating, work is approached through several channels. One approach may be the identification, isolation and control of the disease organism itself. Another means for alleviating suffering may be through the introduction into a given area of improved methods of soil conservation and increased production through the use of better farm equipment. Whatever means the World Health Organization may employ to better living conditions in order to improve health, it presupposes a foundation of confidence built among the peoples to be helped. This is done through an appreciation of their social culture in order to introduce a program of education towards better living. All of this Hemming presents in a forthright and arresting manner.

The reader can hardly fail to grasp the story of hope and achievement that is reflected in the campaign man is waging against poor health, in order to offer a better world for future generations.

JOSEPHINE W. HUBBELL
University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

The Far Western Frontier, 1830-1860. By Ray Allen Billington. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. Pp. xix, 324. \$3.75.

This is the sixth volume to be published in the *New American Nation Series* edited by Commager and Morris. Professor Billington of Northwestern University has presented a fascinating account of one of the most exciting and significant periods in American history — the drama of western expansion.

Beginning with life in old Mexico, the author introduces in succession the Santa Fe traders, the wild hunters of the mountains, and the hardy pioneers of the overland trails

to Oregon and California. He describes three important developments in western history with new and interesting details—the origins and frontier campaigns of the Mexican War; the Mormon migration and their experiments with "theo-democracy"; and the tremendous activity caused by the discovery of gold in California. He concludes appropriately with the establishment of permanent connections between the East and West brought about by stage and pony express routes.

The sources of frontier history—the journals and memoirs of the pioneers, and the rich store of legends—were rarely written with historical objectivity in mind, and if the author seems to have included a generous amount of the more exciting and dramatic events and personalities of frontier history, few readers will object, for, rightly or wrongly, this is what Americans believed the West to be. Not all of the pioneers were as wild as the "Mountain Men," as dogged as the gold-miners, or as daring as the mail riders, but few historians could investigate the large collection of bibliographical material cited in this book without becoming enthusiastically infected with awe and admiration for the men who met and conquered the hardships and problems of the western frontier.

This is the kind of book which will be used widely for a reference on western life, because it presents a familiar scene with new and intensely interesting detail. Scholars and laymen alike will welcome it as a refreshing example of excellent historical writing.

FREDERIC S. KLEIN

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

Labor, Institutions and Economics. By Alfred Kuhn. New York: Rinehart & Company, Inc. 1956. Pp. xx, 616. \$6.50.

Professor Kuhn disclaims any originality in his own point of view towards labor relations. In this sense his work covers the same problems and areas as most other texts in this field. He has written with two ob-

jectives in mind: first, to clarify the assumptions behind most current thinking in the labor relations field; and second, to reorganize the available material in a manner which will make this material more meaningful to students. Professor Kuhn has fully achieved both of these objectives.

The first half of the book is devoted to a study of both managerial and union institutions and the interactions of these institutions in collective bargaining. His discussion of the bargaining process is lucid and comprehensive. Professor Kuhn's penetrating analysis of the problem of bargaining power is an especially valuable contribution to the field of undergraduate labor literature.

The development of labor law is also cast in terms of the law's influence on collective bargaining. This approach serves to integrate public policy problems into the body of the usual undergraduate course more fully than do most texts.

The second half of *Labor* covers labor economics. The usual material on wages, hours of work and economic security is presented. The most noteworthy contribution of this section is the author's convincing reconciliation of marginal productivity theory and the observable behavior of employers "in the real world." Kuhn, like other textbook writers in the field, has virtually ignored the more important macroeconomic problems. It is regrettable that he did not turn his obvious talent for handling economic theory to the relationship between union wage policy, national income and economic growth.

Professor Kuhn's book is an outstanding addition to the selection of texts available for advanced undergraduate courses in labor economics. In view of the overall quality of

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the work and the extensive bibliographical material included, *Labor* may be used profitably as a background text in many graduate courses. It should also be valuable to the casual reader who wishes to extend his own knowledge of the labor relations field.

WALTER S. MEASDAY

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Mental Health Planning for Social Action.

By George S. Stevenson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1956. Pp. 358. \$6.50.

The scope of this book is the broad field of mental health and its objective is to bring together the different areas and problems in an overview of the subject. It is directed toward all of the diverse people currently interested and working in mental health. To illustrate the breadth of the topic as covered in this book some of the subjects mentioned are the legal definition of sanity, the place of the church in mental health and a list of mental health films. The book is divided into five parts. The three most important are (1) The Restoration of Mental Health (the problems and treatment of mental illness), (2) Elevation of Mental Health (the positive aspects of mental health), and (3) Special Considerations (the problems in establishing a mental health program).

In the section on Restoration of Mental Health the author cites the different agencies and facilities that are available for treatment of mental illness. The extensiveness of the different agencies presented is reflected in the chapter headings, some of which are: Veterans' Psychiatric Services, Provisions for the Mentally Deficient, the Halfway House and Nonpsychiatric Agencies Serving the Deviant. In the discussion of each of these agencies the author covers the history, personnel, particular problems, research and suggestions for future growth.

The section on the Elevation of Mental Health is concerned with the development of mentally healthy ideas and attitudes. The

growth of these ideas and attitudes is discussed in relation to the institutions which instill and foster them (the family, school and church) and where they are important in every day life (work and recreation).

While the breadth of the book's coverage is a virtue in many respects, in others it is not. As the author indicates in the preface, the book is uneven; some studies are cited in detail while other relevant studies are not mentioned. Because of this unevenness it appears that there are parts of the book that the layman will find too technical and other parts that the professional person will find oversimplified. The author appears to use the term "psychiatric" in two ways. One is when he is discussing psychiatrists and the other is when he is referring to any work or problem in the broad field of mental health. Nonpsychiatrists may be somewhat disturbed by this dual usage of the term "psychiatric." The book probably will be most beneficial to a person responsible for establishing a mental health program.

DONALD K. PUMROY

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Measurements of Mind and Matter. By G.

W. Scott Blair. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 115. \$4.50.

Scientists are by no means agreed on how to define "science" or on where the frontiers of science and the boundaries of the separate "science" are to be drawn. Measurement is a basic scientific procedure, but again, there

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is no general agreement as to what constitutes measurement. In this little volume, Blair discusses these problems in the borderline region between physics and psychology, a territory which has been much neglected on account of the preoccupation of the physicists with the atom and of the psychologists with the "unconscious." Blair believes that the unwillingness of many scientists to venture into the disputed territory between the "sciences" and their distrust of those who do so, is partly responsible for the lack of popular interest in scientific matters, and that another cause for this lack of interest lies in the dearth of books of technical subjects which can be read by non-scientists. Hence this publication is a deliberate attempt to deal with highly technical and controversial matters in such a way that it can be comprehended by the intelligent layman, and especially the one interested in the field defined by the title of the work.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
 Bridgeport, Connecticut

Social Characteristics of Urban and Rural Communities, 1950. By Otis Dudley Duncan and Albert J. Reiss, Jr. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956. Pp. xviii, 421. \$6.50.

The purpose of this book is to contribute to the systematic study of communities by organizing census data dealing with the size, spatial organization, growth and decline, and functional specialization of American communities. It becomes the most comprehensive statistical sourcebook available on urban and rural communities by virtue of the compilation of a wide range of data from the 1950 Census, on age, sex, race, nativity, family status, migration, education, occupation, and income. The interrelationships of all these items are studied in detail. It is a book for the specialist, or the seeker after specific descriptive facts, rather than the general reader or the casual student.

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WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

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From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes. By John Hope Franklin. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1956. Pp. xxx, 639. \$7.50.

The Anti-Stalin Campaign and International

Communism. Edited by the Russian Institute. New York: Columbia University Press, 1956. Pp. xix, 342. \$4.00.

The Cokers of Carolina. By George Lee Simpson, Jr. Chapel Hill, North Carolina: The University of North Carolina Press, 1956. Pp. xiii, 327. \$5.00.

The Magsaysay Story. By Carlos P. Romulo and Marvin M. Gray. New York: The John Day Company, 1956. Pp. xvi, 316. \$5.00.

American Philosophers at Work. Edited by Sidney Hook. New York: Criterion Books, 1956. Pp. 512. \$7.50.

Other People's Children. By Anna Judge Veters Levy. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1956. Pp. xiv, 287. \$3.75.

Marriage Consulting. By Rex A. Skidmore, Hulda Van Steater Garrett, and C. Jay Skidmore. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956. Pp. xxii, 420. \$5.00.

Education and Human Motivation. By Harry Giles. New York: Philosophical Library, 1957. Pp. vi, 108. \$3.00.

Dictionary of Anthropology. By Charles Winick. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. 580. \$10.00

Aging in Industry. By F. LeGros Clark and Agnes C. Dunne. New York: Philosophical Library, 1956. Pp. v, 146. \$7.50.

Youth Faces American Citizenship. By Leo J. Alilunas and J. Woodrow Sayre. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1956. Pp. 592. \$4.00.

The World Around Us. By Zoe A. Thralls. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co, 1956. Pp. 480. \$4.20.

Solving Our Problems in a Democracy. By Nelson L. Bossing and Robert R. Martin. River Forest, Illinois: Laidlaw Brothers, 1956. 640. \$3.48. Revised Edition of *Youth Faces its Problems*.

Applied Economics. By James H. Dodd. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1956. Pp. 566. \$2.72.

Consumer Economic Problems. By W. Harmon Wilson and Elvin S. Eyster. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Company, 1956. Pp. 725. \$3.20.

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